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ABSTRACT

This teaching guide is a resource for the classroom teacher of limited-English-proficient (LEP) migrant students. Following introductory information about LEP students, the guide contains sections on: (1) organizing your class for language learning, emphasizing cooperative learning; (2) language development, emphasizing social interaction; (3) literacy development, focusing on English reading; (4) English in the content areas; (5) cultural awareness; (6) parent involvement; and (7) assessment. The sections are interspersed with teaching tips, activities, and article reprints addressing the various aspects of teaching LEP students. The assessment section includes reproducible student language surveys in English and Spanish. Also included are a chart of state and local contact persons, a glossary of second-language-education terms, and additional readings. (KS)

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HELP!
They Don't Speak English
Starter Kit

for Elementary Teachers

The HELP Starter Kit
is a
resource guide
for
educators of
limited English proficient migrant students

RC 019106

1992

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INTRODUCTION

The **HELP Starter Kit for Elementary Teachers** is a resource for the classroom teacher who is faced with the challenge of providing daily instruction to limited English proficient (LEP) migrant students. It is designed to help organize a program which meets the needs of this unique population by focusing on:

- helping students attain proficiency in English in order to function to the best of their abilities;
- helping LEP students recognize and take pride in their academic success even though they may not be functioning on the same level as their classmates;
- fostering high self-esteem; and
- learning to appreciate the rich language and culture of LEP migrant students.

Success and motivation are keys to effective instruction. Remember that "limited English proficient" does not mean "limited thinking proficient." While a ten year old student may speak very little English, he/she may have the experience, interests, and maturity of a fourth grader. When placing students, you will want to consider all the information available to you. There is a wealth of information available on teaching LEP students. Because we are aware of the many demands facing classroom teachers, we have included only materials to help you get started.

DO YOU HAVE LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT (LEP) STUDENTS?

Most LEP students speak another language in their homes. If you ever studied a foreign language, you surely remember what a painstaking discovery process it was. A key point to keep in mind is that it generally takes from 5 to 7 years for a second language learner to perform like a native speaker academically. Usually, the younger the student, the sooner he/she will "catch on" and "catch up". Be patient with yourself and your students. Maintain high, yet realistic expectations, and remind yourself frequently that limited English proficient is <u>not</u> limited thinking proficient. Here are some basic hints for working effectively with your LEP students:

1) Be warm and welcoming. Speak clearly and simply; it is not necessary to speak more loudly.

2) Assign buddies and peer tutors to your LEP student (bilingual ones when possible).

3) Use props, gestures, and facial expressions to communicate. Body language can be very eloquent.

4) Include the child in all class activities. Give the LEP student assignments and duties he/she can complete successfully.

5) Encourage your student to share his/her language and culture with you and your class.

6) Focus attention on key vocabulary. Use pictures, charts, graphs, and stories to teach vocabulary in context.

7) Keep talking to your student. It is normal for him/her to experience a "silent period" that can last days, weeks, or even months. If a child is reluctant to speak in English, do not force production.

8) Arrange intensive help with English whenever possible.

9) Use a grading system which shows progress, but does not unfairly compare your LEP student to his/her peer's performance. Standardized tests are generally not a valid measure of the LEP student's performance; however, if your students knows quite a bit of English, he/she can benefit from learning how to take a standardized test.

10) Many of your LEP students have either repeated a grade, or have been placed in lower grades in the erroneous belief that they will learn English faster. These students are best served by keeping them at grade level, modifying and adapting their assignments, and offering additional help with English as frequently as possible.

THINGS YOUR LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT (LEP) STUDENTS WON'T TELL YOU

- **DO LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT STUDENTS PRETEND TO UNDERSTAND LESS THAN THEY ACTUALLY DO?**

  Your students have no reason to play games with you. Most migrant students want an education and respect teachers and authority figures. Their hesitance to speak probably comes from their efforts to translate what they hear into their dominant language, or they may be experiencing a "silent period" which can last weeks or months when they are in the early stages of learning English.

- **IS FLUENCY IN "SOCIAL LANGUAGE" SITUATIONS AN INDICATOR OF READINESS FOR ACADEMIC TASKS?**

  For content learning to occur your students must understand the language of instruction. The students' social language may be fully adequate for their lives outside the classroom, but if they do not understand the language you use in the classroom, including that of textbooks, LEP students are likely to fall behind in school.

  Even children whose first language is English often have trouble with the language of the classroom. For children whose primary language is Spanish, the problems are compounded (Spanish-speaking students must gain an understanding of English, as well as of the more specialized English that is used in instruction).

- **SHOULD LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT STUDENTS PROGRESS A FULL YEAR EVERY SCHOOL YEAR?**

  Students whose dominant language is not English have difficulty with the expectation that every child is expected to progress a grade in school every year. Your students who are learning a second language, adjusting to a new culture, or recovering from emotional trauma (relocation, refugee status, etc.) may well need more than nine months to complete the learning associated with a given grade level.

- **HOW/WHEN DO WE TEACH LETTER SOUNDS IN BEGINNING READING?**

  In the early stages of reading instruction, be sure your students are familiar with the materials in oral form. Learning letter sounds has much more relevance if the words used as examples have come from a section of print used for a comprehension lesson. There are letter sounds in English that are not used in the students' dominant language and are difficult for the students to reproduce.

- **ARE YOU SPEAKING TOO FAST FOR YOUR STUDENTS TO UNDERSTAND YOU?**

  Most of your migrant students come from a culture where teachers and adults are held in high regard. It is difficult for them to approach an adult and indicate they do not understand. Such contact is often interpreted as being rude. Therefore, it is advisable to check your student's comprehension as frequently as possible.

- **ARE STUDENTS BEING RUDE WHEN THEY DON'T LOOK AT YOU?**

  This question can best be answered by familiarizing yourself with the students' cultures. As is often the case with migrant students, they cannot verbalize their difficulties in understanding content or instruction. Ask them if they are having problems with (be specific) and help them identify the area of concern. Many eastern cultures and Hispanic cultures teach children to show respect by avoiding direct eye contact with an adult. To do so can be interpreted as an act of defiance.

WILL THE LEP STUDENT UNDERSTAND MY CLASSROOM RULES AND FOLLOW DIRECTIONS?

LEP students will follow your classroom rules very much the same way other students do. Indeed, it is important that the LEP student learn your classroom management system as soon as possible; otherwise, potential discipline problems may arise such as unruly behavior, classmate ridicule, and feelings of resentment. Although the first weeks may be a confusing time for the LEP student, it is important that he or she understand your expectations from the very beginning.

- The use of visibly displayed charts, graphs, and reward systems will assist you in communicating your expectations. Illustrate with symbols or pictures if there is any doubt about the difficulty of the language level.

- Demonstrate consistency, concern, and control. These may be conveyed nonverbally, and an alert student will recognize classroom routines and expectations, like checking homework or going to the office for a tardy slip, very early in the school year. The LEP student's understanding of common classroom rewards such as "stickers," "outside," "treat," and "grade" are proof that the LEP student knows what is happening in the classroom. He or she must therefore be held to the same standards of appropriate behavior as the other students, and be rewarded or punished accordingly. Moreover, the other students need to see that the LEP student is treated as an equal.

- At the beginning, LEP students will attempt to follow verbal directions while actually observing modeled behavior. So, while speaking about a math problem in the text, for examples, point to someone who has his or her math book open; hold up a ruler when telling the students to use a ruler for their work; when students are coloring maps for social studies, have a student show the LEP student his box of crayons, point to the map and nod "yes."

- While others are doing seatwork, the LEP student may copy from the board or a book, practice using appropriate worksheets, work quietly with a peer, listen to tapes, use a language master, or illustrate a topic.

- Design a list of commonly used "directional" words such as circle, write, draw, cut, read, fix, copy, underline, match, add, subtract. Have the LEP student find these "action" words in a picture dictionary with a buddy or alone. Then have the student illustrate these words with symbols or translate them into the native language. The student may keep these words in the front of a notebook, on the desk, or in a pencil case. They will help the LEP student become an independent learner, capable of being resourceful and occupied when you are not available to help. Underline or circle these terms on the board, on worksheets, or in consumable texts. When these words are recognized by the student, you can expect him or her to complete the assigned tasks independently.

WHAT TECHNIQUES, INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS AND RESOURCES ARE RECOMMENDED FOR USE WITH LEP STUDENTS?

It is important to maintain high expectations of LEP students, be prepared for their success and progress, and keep in mind that LEP students are generally not a remedial population. Usually the younger the student, the sooner he or she will "catch on" and "catch up".

If the student is receiving ESL instruction, your job may be easier if you establish a close relationship with the ESL teacher. Together you can plan the student's educational program. If there is no ESL teacher, you may work directly with the foreign language teacher(s), reading specialist, special education teacher, parent volunteers, or anyone else who may have resources, ideas, and time to share.

At the elementary level, you can borrow books, workbooks, teaching aids, audio visual equipment, and assignment sheets from the lower grades. Curriculum guides and the entry/exit minimum skill requirements for each grade level are excellent resource guidelines.

Native language dictionaries, bilingual dictionaries, and picture dictionaries (of varying degrees of difficulty) are essentials for you and the LEP student. Encourage and expect the student to make use of these and any other suitable reference materials as soon as possible.

Your primary techniques will involve 1) individualizing; 2) adapting; and 3) modifying classwork for the LEP student. Always consider his or her language development, study skills and the subject content while doing so. Examples of these techniques are described below.

- Individualizing: If the LEP student in an elementary classroom clearly comprehends the meaning of words for a spelling lesson yet cannot express the meaning of the words orally, you may wish to individualize the spelling assignment by allowing him or her to "draw the definition" of each word. The LEP student who is unable to define the word car, for example, as "a moving vehicle with four wheels" could convey his or her understanding of the concept by drawing a simple diagram or illustration. Individualizing a science project at the secondary level may require a detailed picture or model of the subject being studied (i.e., the heart, plants, the weather) with labels being copied in English and possibly in the student's native language.

- Adapting: Adapting a primary or secondary level mathematics test or textbook for the LEP student whose computational skills are well-developed but whose reading skills are inadequate or underdeveloped may involve deleting word problems in math altogether. To compensate for this deletion, you may wish to add more computational problems or to grade only the computation part of a test. Social studies assignments, on the other hand, may require more language than the student possesses. Therefore, you may find simple memorization activities helpful for the LEP

student; sample activities may include memorizing the states of the United States and their respective capitals, the names of the seven continents of the world, five explorers of the New World, or three Presidents of the United States. Activities such as unscrambling key vocabulary terms or matching vocabulary words with their definitions are also useful.

• Modifying: In an elementary reading class, it would be quite feasible to use a lower level basal series or high interest/low level materials for "reading time." The LEP student would still be responsible for reading but at a suitable pace and appropriate level. At both the elementary and secondary levels, spelling, grammar, and punctuation exercises may be assigned from a lower level textbook or workbook that corresponds to whatever the class is learning at the time. It is important to remember your students are sensitive to the interest level of the material they read.

Remember to frequently include concrete objects and everyday experiences across the curriculum. This will give the student a solid base in dealing with his or her new environment. Examples include:

Mathematics: Using the calendar; handling money in the cafeteria or store.

Telling Time: Changing classes, using daily movie, TV, and bus schedules.

Vital Statistics: Height, weight, and age.

Survival Skills: Address and telephone number, measuring distance; reading cooking measurements; making shopping lists, etc.

Science: Hands-on experiments, plant and animal care, charts, graphs, illustrations, specimens.

Social Studies: Hands-on experiences such as field trips, movies, magazine and newspaper clippings, collages, maps, flags, customs, and "show and tell", using materials from home or travels.

Art, Music, and Physical Education: Participating in all instructional and recreational activities; inviting the student to share activities of this nature from his homeland. These courses may provide the only outlets of expression for the LEP student.

Design a seating arrangement where the LEP student can be involved with whole group, individual, and peer group activities. The LEP student needs a flexible arrangement to fit his or her special needs. Sometimes just a small space where it is possible to concentrate is sufficient. You may find it helpful to seat the student near you or his or her buddy.

ORGANIZING YOUR CLASS FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING

ORGANIZING YOUR CLASS FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING

Organizing your classroom, students, lessons, and mind set to maximize language learning makes teaching limited English proficient students a joy!

Here are some tips to help you get started. Soon you will be adding your own helpful strategies to the list.

Help for the Classroom Teacher

Working Effectively with Limited English Proficient (LEP) Students in the Regular Classroom.

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1. Assign a buddy to tutor the LEP student, to explain whatever has to be done - in sign language, English, or whatever works to get the message across.

2. Have the class make a list of the classroom instructions the LEP student will need to know in order to function as a part of the class. Have the class act out the appropriate response, or have the buddy teach the instructions.

3. Label everything possible in the room in English and the LEP student's native language, if possible. This will help the LEP student feel at home in the classroom and will help the other students appreciate another language.

4. Have the LEP student's buddy take him/her around the room, introducing common classroom objects.

5. Give the LEP student opportunities to hear regular English used for communication purposes. When he/she appears comfortable, give the LEP student many opportunities to speak English in purposeful interactions requiring communication. Remember, second language learners go through a silent period and should not be made to speak.

6. Use props and gestures whenever possible to add context to your language. This will not only help the LEP student understand you, it will help him/her to remember the words and their meaning.

7. Include the LEP student in all classroom and school activities. His/Her buddy will help. The more the student feels a part of the class and school, the higher his/her motivation to learn English will be.

8. Maintain high expectations of LEP students, be prepared for their success and progress and keep in mind that LEP students are generally not a remedial population.

9. Your primary instructional techniques will involve the following: 1. **individualizing,** 2. **adapting,** 3. **modifying** classwork for the LEP student. Always consider his/her language development while doing so.

10. You can do it <u>and</u> enjoy yourself!!!

WHAT SPECIFIC ACTIVITIES CAN I DO TO PREPARE THE LEP STUDENT FOR SCHOOL?

Explain, demonstrate, and anticipate possible difficulties with everyday routines and regulations whenever time permits. If there is a large LEP population in your school or district, perhaps volunteers could compile pictorial or bilingual guidelines or handbooks with details of policy and procedures. Depending upon the student's experience(s) with formal education, the need for explanations may vary greatly. Consider the following routines as "teaching opportunities" to prepare the students for American culture:

In Class

- Class rules: Rewards, enforcement, consequences.
- School conduct.
- Morning rituals: Greetings, calendar work, assignments, collection of money, homework.
- Library conduct: Check out, book return.
- Field trips/permission slips
- Gym: Participation, showers, attire.
- School photographs: Dress, payment.
- Substitutes.
- Seat work/group work.
- Tests, quizzes, reports.
- Grades, report cards, incompletes.
- Treats.
- Free time.
- Teams: Choosing, assigning.
- Standardized testing and exemptions.
- Exams.
- Special projects: Extra credit, double grades.

In School

- Breaks: Bathroom, water, recess.
- Cafeteria routines: Line formation, lunch passes.
- Fire drills.
- Assemblies: Pep rallies, awards, awards ceremonies.
- Contests and competitions.
- Holidays: Festivities, traditions.
- Fund raisers.
- Routine health exams, screening.
- Suspension.
- Guidance counseling.
- Disciplinary methods: In-school suspension.
- Free lunch: Income verification.
- Family life education: Sex education.

After School

- Parent conferences and attendance.
- PTA meetings.
- Proms, dances, special events.
- Field days.
- Clubs, honor societies, sport activities.
- Detention.
- Summer school.

TIPS FOR TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

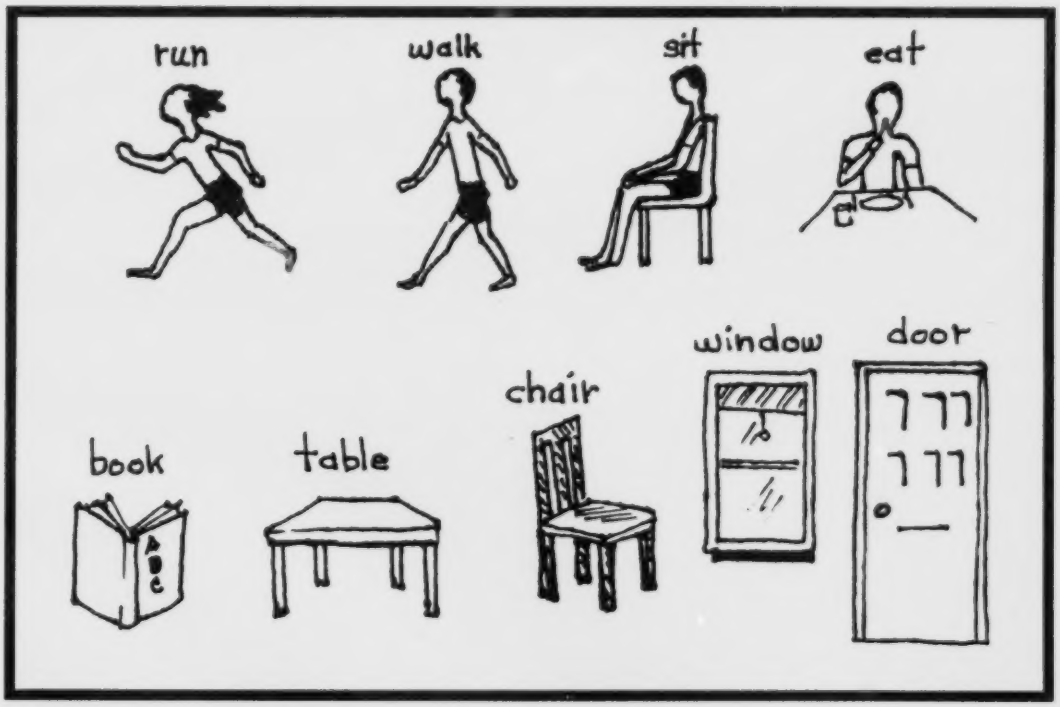
1. Encourage students to use bilingual dictionaries. students should have them in their possession at all times. If students do not have the skills to use them, teach at least the fundamentals of alphabetical order.. Since you may not speak or read the language in the bilingual dictionary, or you have a variety of languages represented in your class, you might invite same-language parents, volunteers, or older children to teach students to use the dictionaries.

2. Look up hard-to-demonstrate words in the student's bilingual dictionary yourself and point to it. This process is important for students who can't use the dictionary themselves.

3. Encourage children to act out or draw a picture of their intended meanings when they want to communicate with you and don't have the needed vocabulary. If the drawing will take some time, continue the lesson and return to the child when the drawing is completed.

4. Keep picture files and a large dictionary on hard for easy reference.

5. Learn to make quick sketches. Practice figures using as few strokes as possible to convey the meaning. Illustrate your talks on the chalkboard. Here are some examples.



from ESL Teacher's Activities Kit, by Prentice-Hall.

DISCIPLINE ACROSS THE LANGUAGE GAP

Children want to know the rules and what is expected of them and others. Most limited English proficient (LEP) students have come from countries where classes are large, teachers are strict, and punishment (often corporal) clearly followed infractions of rules or students' failure to produce satisfactory results.

New arrivals to U.S. schools are bound to notice that the reins are looser here than those they are accustomed to. They may regard with dismay and lack of respect those teachers that they can manipulate. Some children might, however, mistake loosened reins for no reins at all and may not feel safe until they know what the limits are.

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from ESL Teacher's Activities Kit, by Prentice-Hall

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Strategies for Involving LEP Students in the All-English-Medium Classroom: A Cooperative Learning Approach

Connie Cochran

Program Information Guide Series Number 12

National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education Summer 1989

20

Introduction

English-medium classroom teachers are becoming more aware of the need to structure classroom activities to allow students at all levels of English language proficiency to participate. Limited English proficiency (LEP) students may spend part of the school day in "pull-out" ESL classes, but most of their time is spent in all-English-medium classrooms (classrooms where English is the only language of instruction used) with native English speakers. Consequently, English-medium teachers need ways to include LEP students in learning activities that are often designed for monolingual English-speaking youngsters. This Program Information Guide offers effective strategies to address this need.

This Guide consists of a brief discussion section followed by practical classroom activities. The first section highlights the natural approach to language acquisition described by Krashen and Terrell, and it describes the development of second language proficiency. In particular, it suggests some strategies, based on this approach, that an all-English-medium instructor can employ in the classroom to assist LEP students in continuing the language acquisition process begun in ESL classes. These strategies can be embedded in cooperative learning activities. The second section discusses cooperative learning, a classroom management system that can help involve LEP students in learning activities which encourage linguistic and academic growth. Techniques developed by De Avila, Kagan, and Slavin are presented in the context of those goals. Finally, the Guide presents several learning strategies and lesson activities that both LEP and native English speaking students can use in together.

Second Language Acquisition Process

Before discussing some of the ways that LEP students can participate in an all English-medium classroom, it is helpful to understand who LEP students are and how they develop English language proficiency in an academic setting. The term "limited English proficiency" refers to a range of linguistic ability that extends from having no knowledge of English to having some English language skills, but not enough to fully participate in an all-English academic setting. An LEP student can be of any age, language background, or academic achievement level. For example, one LEP student may possess a doctorate, but another may have no formal education. The only characteristic LEP students share is a measurable limitation in their English proficiency.

The process these students go through in developing English language proficiency is similar to the process of young children becoming fluent in a first language (Cochran, 1985). They listen to and "take in" a great deal of speech before they begin to speak themselves. As their speech begins to emerge, they make predictable grammatical errors which eventually are corrected through increased exposure and practice.

When children acquire a first language, they spend years refining their language knowledge. In fact, young children are still internalizing grammar and vocabulary five or six years later when they begin school. Second language learners are rarely given that much time to become fluent before they are transferred into a total English language environment. Teachers can

help students attain proficiency more efficiently by using language the same way that parents of toddlers do. Learning is enhanced by parents and teachers when they:

- Simplify communication (i.e., speak in simpler terms). Great care must be taken to ensure that in simplifying communication, the meaning of the intended message is not changed or lost.

- Talk about issues of immediate content or relevance ("here and now").

- Frequently repeat or paraphrase key words and ideas.

Teachers should expect LEP students to begin language development with a "silent period," when they can understand increasing amounts of English but are not yet ready to speak. This pre-production phase can last anywhere from a few days to a few months. During this stage, students can express their comprehension through physical responses until they are ready to respond orally. The activity section of this Guide offers suggestions for teachers which encourage this type of response.

When second language learners are ready to speak, their communication often begins with single words, such as "yes" and "no" or simple routines, such as "good morning" or "thank you." Both teachers and peers can encourage beginning speech in English when they focus on the LEP student's ability to communicate rather than correct grammatical form. The goal of initial speech is successful communication of an idea; students who can make their ideas understood by others are communicating successfully. The cooperative learning section describes how classroom activities become arenas for natural and meaningful communication.

As their speech emerges and their vocabulary grows, LEP students can be increasingly involved in class assignments by participating in reviews of basic factual material. Questions with a single correct answer such as a true/false statement, a basic mathematical computation, or a specific historical date can be answered by LEP pupils with limited oral proficiency at the early stages of speech production.

Researchers (see Krashen, 1981) indicate that students are more willing to speak (and therefore become more fluent) when they can do so in a small group rather than before the entire class. To provide a non-threatening atmosphere, teachers with LEP students can organize their classrooms to work in small groups. The next section describes how cooperative learning, a group-centered approach, can be particularly effective for involving LEP students in learning tasks.

Basic Elements of Cooperative Learning

As an alternative to traditional individualized and competitive classrooms, cooperative learning has risen in popularity in the last two decades. Slavin (1981) has shown it to be an effective learning system for both academically advanced and lower achieving students. In addition to promoting learning, this system has been found to foster respect and friendship among heterogeneous groups of students. For this reason, cooperative learning offers much to

teachers who are trying to involve LEP students in all-English-medium classroom activities. Also, some language minority students come from cultures which encourage cooperative interaction, and they may be more comfortable in an environment of shared learning.

Several elements distinguish cooperative learning from whole class instruction, individualized instruction, and traditional forms of group work. Cooperative learning includes the following basic elements:

- Heterogeneous groups of students with assigned roles to perform.
- Lessons structured for positive interdependence among group members.
- Identification and practice of specific social behaviors.
- Evaluation through whole-class wrap-up, individual testing, and group recognition.

First, cooperative learning consists of student-centered learning activities completed by students in heterogeneous groups of two to six. Through a shared learning activity, students benefit from observing learning strategies used by their peers. LEP students further benefit from face-to-face verbal interactions, which promote communication that is natural and meaningful. When students work in heterogeneous groups, issues related to the capabilities and status of group members sometimes arise (De Avila, Duncan & Navarrette, 1987); cooperative learning addresses these issues by assigning roles to each member of the group. Roles such as set up, clean up, and reporter help the group complete its tasks smoothly. They provide all members with a purpose that is separate from the academic activity and enable them to contribute to the successful completion of the learning task. By rotating assignments on a daily or weekly basis, teachers enable all students to develop skills as leaders and as helpers. The activity section of this Guide describes roles in more detail.

After establishing student learning groups, teachers must next consider structuring the lessons to create a situation of positive interdependence among the members of the groups. Several strategies encourage students to depend on each other in a positive way for their learning: limiting available materials, which creates the need for sharing; assigning a single task for the group to complete collaboratively; and assigning each student only a certain piece of the total information necessary to complete a task, such as reading only a portion of an assigned chapter or knowing only one step in a complex math problem. Students are made responsible for each others' learning and only through sharing their pieces of information will the group be able to complete an assignment. The activity section suggests some ways to create positive interdependence by structuring jigsaw lessons.

The third basic element in cooperative learning classrooms is the social behaviors necessary for success in working cooperatively. These behaviors include sharing, encouraging others, and accepting responsibility for the learning of others. They must be overtly identified by the teacher, practiced in non-threatening situations, and reinforced throughout the school year.

The fourth feature of cooperative learning is evaluation which can be done at three levels. The success of shared learning activities is judged daily in a wrap-up or processing session. At the end of the cooperative lesson, the entire class reconvenes to report on content learning and group effectiveness in cooperation. The teacher conducts a class-wide discussion in which reporters tell what happened in the group activity; successful learning strategies are shared; and students form generalizations or link learning to previously developed concepts.

Students can use the wrap-up to consider what additional information they would like to learn or other activities they would like to try in relation to the original activity. Second, teachers can recognize and reward groups for their effectiveness and cooperative spirit during the wrap-up session since wrap-up sessions assess the success of both the cooperation and the learning.

Even though students work collaboratively and become responsible for each others' learning, individuals are still held accountable for their own academic achievement. Quizzes and tests are the third level of the evaluation process. The scores students receive on tests form the basis of class grades as they do in a traditional classroom.

These basic elements of cooperative learning can be used with any type of student. Cooperative learning makes sense for teachers who have LEP pupils in their classes because all students are given frequent opportunities to speak and because a spirit of cooperation and friendship is fostered among classmates.

The next section of this Guide describes cooperative learning stategies that promote inclusion of all students and lesson activities that enhance language acquisition and academic achievement.

Activities

Teachers who use cooperative learning can select from several strategies the most appropriate one to meet the learning goal of each lesson. The following are examples of strategies that meet the needs of second language learners and enhance cooperative working behaviors.

Using Non-verbal Responses

There are several ways teachers can check students' understanding of content materials without requiring them to speak before the entire class. During a wrap-up session or before a test, teachers can conduct non-verbal reviews by:

- Calling several students to the board to simultaneously work a problem;
- Posing true/false statements to which class members respond by holding their thumbs up or down;
- Using a designated physical response (such as standing up or sitting down) to show agreement or indicate which of two options students prefer; or

- Asking students to raise previously-made flash cards in response to an identification question. (Flash card sets could consist of characters in a novel, four geographic regions, various chemical compounds, etc.)

In cooperative classrooms, teachers may designate a student from each group to respond nonverbally to questions rather than have the whole class participate at once. For example, they may call on "all quartermasters" or "everyone born in July" to answer. Language minority students responding simultaneously with their English-speaking peers feel less threatened in this type of situation and can more easily show what they know.

Assigning and Rotating Roles

Assigning roles to group members helps to delegate authority and to equalize the status of all members. The roles students perform relate to the smooth functioning of a group regardless of its learning task. Therefore, it is important for every student to understand each role and its importance to the cooperative learning system. Students with an assigned role to perform feel they share the responsiblity for the success of the group and can interact within the role as an equal to others in the group. These feelings may also encourage better attendance in students who know the learning team is depending on their presence.

Roles bring out a "work-like" attitude in students; roles in the following list reflect the world of work and encourage the group to have a sense of responsibility.

Sample Roles for Cooperative Groups

Quartermaster

Your task is to get the materials the group needs to do its work. You also make sure everything is put away and cleaned up before your group leaves the center. Quartermasters are very important to the program, and everybody depends on them to take care of materials.

Inspector

Your job is to help the group finish on time. You watch the clock and check the worksheets to be sure everyone will be ready to go to the next activity at the signal. Inspectors are important to the class, and everyone depends on them to keep the group on time.

Supervisor

You are like a shop foreman. You make sure the group works together and finishes the assignment. When the group is finished, or if it is stuck, you tell the teacher. As a supervisor, you are the leader of the group, and everybody depends on you.

Courier

You are responsible for materials that are in short supply. Some items must be shared by more than one group. Your job is to find those materials, make sure they are used quickly in your group, and pass them on. Sharing scarce materials is an important task, and everyone depends on you.

Reporter

Your job is to write what happened in your group. During the wrap-up, you will tell the whole class about the work your group did. Reporting is an important job, and everybody depends on you to help the class learn.

Equalizing Speaking Turns

When considering using learning groups in their classrooms, teachers wonder about the individual who dominates a group by out-talking the others. Teachers of LEP students, on the other hand, frequently worry that their students do not contribute enough to group discussions because of their reluctance to speak. Kagan (1989) describes a strategy that deals with both types of students by more fairly distributing conversation.

In a group discussion setting, each person uses his or her pen (pencil, or any other designated marker) as a pass to speak. The student who has something to say puts down a pen in the middle of the group. The "talking pen" then remains on the table until everyone else has had a turn to speak and has put down their pen. The goal of using talking pens is to give each group member an equal opportunity to be heard. When everyone has had a turn, all pens are picked up and another round of speaking in turn can begin.

Students who want to talk frequently will need to learn how to draw out their more reticent teammates or they will not get a second turn to speak. To help students communicate, teachers should introduce several polite protocols which students can use to encourage others. Such protocols include:

"What do you think, Juan?"
"Do you have something to add, Hector?"
"Phuong always has good ideas. What do you say, Phuong?"

Through the use of talking pens, verbally dominant students learn that they must involve others in a group discussion and will develop several polite ways to solicit their input. Reluctant or shy students, whether LEP or not, learn that their contributions are needed by the group. (The protocol, "I pass," should also be taught as a valid way to indicate that a group member has nothing more to add to the discussion.) Generally, the talking pens technique works well for all group members by making discussions more representative.

Taking Polls

Polls to determine preferences, trends, or opinions have become quite common across the United States. Students of all ages can participate in poll taking by asking each other questions about their likes, abilities, or background experiences. The repetitive nature of asking polling questions makes this an excellent language acquisition activity. If questions are carefully phrased, the predictable range of responses will also assist language minority students in conducting meaningful conversations.

The information collected from polling can be used by all students as data for math, science, or social studies classes. Data from several polls can be combined, averaged, compared over time or between age groups, and in many other ways. The data can be used to make predictions, verify claims, or report trends. Polls can also be taken as a pre-writing activity with an analysis of the findings assigned for the composition topic. Subjects for polls can be selected within a class, in the school population or from the home and community. Effective questions call for personal input from the subject and a limited range of responses. Such questions might include the following:

Do you like .....?
Do you have .....?
Can you make/play/do ....?
Have you ever .....?

Sample Lesson : Polling Your Friends

Each cooperative group selects a topic for polling classmates to determine class favorites. One group may poll for favorite colors, one for favorite rock groups, another for favorite sports and so on. Teammates divide the class among themselves to be sure everyone is polled. (They should remember to include themselves and the teacher.)

A poll form could look like this:

Question: What is your favorite car ?

Response
1. porsche
2. miata
3. jaguar
4. toyota
5. aries

For younger students the form could look like this:

Question: Do you like chocolate ice cream ?

Response:	Yes	No
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		

After collecting information from everyone in the class, teammates return to their groups and complete a tally sheet compiling all the responses.

Tally Sheet

Question: _____ ?

Responses:	Number who said it
1. Porsche	III
2. Miata	~~IIII~~
3. Jaguar	II
4.	

For a homework assignment, students can be asked to poll others outside the class on the same topic.

Homework Assignment

Ask your question of

10 people in the school or on your bus
10 people at home or in your neighborhood

Bring the new data to your group and add it to the tally sheet.

For the second lesson, the group may make a graph to show their findings. Reporters should be able to make statements about what was the most or least favorite. The wrap-up could include questions about what other information students would like to consider in polls or how they would refine the polling process.

Roundrobin

Roundrobin and Roundtable (Kagan, 1989) are simple cooperative learning techniques which can be used to encourage participation among all group members, especially LEP students. Teachers present a category to students in cooperative learning groups, and students take turns around the group naming items to fit the category. The activity is called Roundrobin when the students give answers orally. When they pass a sheet of paper and write their answers, the activity is called Roundtable.

Good topics for Roundrobin activities are those which have enough components to go at least three times around the circle with ease. Therefore, with cooperative groups of four or five students, the categories should have 12 to 15 easy answers. Topics to use for teaching and practicing Roundrobin could include:

Things that are green.
Things found in a city.
Words beginning with A.

Students are usually given a time limit, such as one or two minutes, to list as many items as they can. However, each student speaks in turn so that no one student dominates the list. Roundrobin and Roundtable often help pupils concentrate on efficiency and strategies for recall. During the wrap-up, teachers can ask the most successful team to share strategies that helped them compile their list. Other learning groups will be able to try those strategies in their next round. Roundrobin or Roundtable topics are limited only by the imagination. Here are a few sample categories for various content areas. They are ordered here from simplest (or useful in lower grades) to most advanced (or useful at higher grade levels).

Geography and Social Studies	**Language Arts and Literature**
Places that are cold	Compound words
Inventions	Past tense verbs
State capitals	Homonyms
Rivers of the US	Characters in Dr. Seuss books
Countries that grow rice	Metaphors
Rulers of England	Fictitious detectives
Lands where Spanish is spoken	Works of Shakespeare
Science	**Math**
Things made of glass	Fractions
Parts of the body	Pairs of numbers whose sum is 23
Metals	Multiples of 12
Elements weighing more than oxygen	Degrees in an acute angle
Invertebrates	Prime numbers
Essential vitamins and minerals	Important mathematicians
NASA inventions	Formulas for finding volume

Jigsaw Activities

Jigsaw activities (Slavin, 1981; Kagan, 1989) are designed to emphasize positive interdependence among students. A jigsaw lesson is created by dividing information to be mastered into several pieces and assigning each member of the cooperative group responsibility for one of those pieces.

For example, in a study of planets, one student would be responsible for finding out the mass and major chemical elements on each planet; another would be responsible for distances from the sun and between planets and their orbits; a third student would find out the origin of planet names; and the fourth would research satellites. After reading the appropriate chapter in the textbook, students become experts on that one aspect of their study unit. In class, the following day, students meet with other classmates who had the same assignment in expert groups. These groups review, clarify, and enhance their understanding of the topic before returning to their cooperative teams. Once students return, they are responsible for "teaching" the information to their teammates and adding their piece to the jigsaw puzzle.

There are a number of ways to "develop" expertise in student team members. In the method described above, all students read the same material, a chapter in the text, but each focuses on a specific area. Expertise can also be formed by giving individual students a part of the total information to share with the others. This second method may involve only a short reading assignment and may be more useful for LEP students or native English speakers who are at low reading levels.

For example, if the learning task were to punctuate a group of sentences, each student on the team could be given a few of the rules for punctuation. The team would have to share their rules with each other in order to complete the task. This same kind of division could be made of steps in a sequence or clues to a mystery. By dividing the information into a jigsaw activity, the teacher ensures that students become positively interdependent on each other to complete the assignment. Each individual feels important because he or she holds a key to the solution and the other group members actively encourage him or her to share it.

The following lessons are examples of jigsaw activities. The first two are logic problems with different clues given to each group member. They are appropriate at the second or third grade level. The next is a jigsaw activity of comma rules with a worksheet of sentences for the group to punctuate. It is designed for intermediate or middle school grades. The last jigsaw activity is a guided reading assignment for use with a content textbook chapter and could be used at a secondary level.

Sample Lesson: Jigsaw Logic Problem I

Logic problems can easily be divided into jigsaw activities by separating the various pieces of information and clues. The following logic problem is first presented as a whole, then split into a jigsaw activity.

> Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday. Each student received only one A and each was in a different subject: either math, English, or history. The subject in which each student got the A is his or her favorite subject. From the clues below, tell which subject is each student's favorite.
>
> 1. Marie's favorite subject is the one David hates.
> 2. Luc knows all the times tables and loves long division.
> 3. David got a D in history.

Student 1	**Student 2**
Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday. Each student received only one A. Marie's favorite subject is the one David hates.	Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday. The subject in which each student got an A is his or her favorite subject. Luc knows all the times tables and loves long division.
Student 3	**Student 4**
Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday. Problem: Which subject is the favorite of each student.	Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday. The A's were only in math, English, and history. David got a D in history.

Solution: Luc got an A in math (clue 2).
Marie got an A in history (clues 1 and 3).
David got an A in English (process of elimination).

Sample Lesson: Jigsaw Logic Problem II

Student 1

Your group has a problem to solve.
You may share this information with your group, but only you may read it.

Ana, Tien, and Juana live next door to each other

The girl with the cat taps on Ana's wall when her TV is too loud.

Student 2

Your group has a problem to solve.
You may share this information with your group, but only you may read it.

Tien lives in the middle apartment.

Problem: Find out which pet belongs to each girl.

Student 3

Your group has a problem to solve.
You may share this information with your group, but only you may read it.

One girl has a cat; another has a dog; and the third has a goldfish.

These girls live in an apartment house.

Student 4

Your group has a problem to solve.
You may share this information with your group, but only you may read it.

The girl with the dog calls Juana on the phone every day.

Ana has to walk to the end of the hall to reach the apartment with the goldfish.

Student 5 (optional)

Your group has a problem to solve.
You may share this information with your group, but only you may read it.

Each girl has a different pet.

Tien's pet eats more food than the other two pets.

Solution: Anna lives with the dog in the first apartment.
Tien, in the middle apartment, has a cat.
Juana lives at the end of the hall with a goldfish as a pet.

Sample Lesson: Jigsaw Activity on Comma Rules

Each student is given one quarter of this page or 2 comma rules and examples. The learning group has one copy of the practice worksheet to complete jointly.

Student 1	Student 2
Use commas to separate elements in a series.	*Use commas to separate details.*
I pass the supermarket, church, park, and post office on my way to school.	She was five feet, four inches. Today is October 14, 1989.
Use commas to set off inserted material.	*Use commas to set off introductory material.*
Remember, Frank, be home by 11:30.	On the contrary, his wife is quite intelligent.
Student 3	**Student 4**
Use commas to promote clarity.	*Use commas with direct quotations.*
Whatever you say, tomorrow I will begin my diet.	"Come home early," she said.
Use commas to set off verb phrases.	*Use commas before coordinating conjunctions.*
The D.J. forgot to bring rock videos, thus completely ruining my party.	They always serve caviar, and I dislike fish.

Comma Practice Worksheet

Punctuate the following sentences with commas where needed.

1. My grandmother every Tuesday bought her groceries.
2. She always bought fruit meat vegetables and milk.
3. Pushing her cart through the aisles she would often find a new product to try.
4. Old fashioned though she was Grandmother loved to try every new food cleanser and medicine on the market.
5. Soon the grocery cart loaded with food would be too heavy for grandmother to push.

6. One day she actually bumped into another shopper whom she could not see through the pile in her cart.

7. "Madam" the irate gentleman said "you have just run over my swollen arthritic toe in your haste to get down the aisle."

8. "In that case kind sir" replied grandmother "would you like to try this new cold pack that claims to reduce swelling? I found it in aisle nine."

9. "If it works on my foot Madam I will take you dancing tonight" he answered.

10. The cold pack worked they went dancing and next Tuesday Grandmother is getting married to that spiritly young-hearted gentleman.

Sample Lesson: Jigsaw Guided Reading Assignment

All students are assigned to read a chapter in the text. Each student is given one of the following tasks in connection with reading.

Student A: Read the assigned chapter and find three examples of cause and effect.

Student B: Read the assigned chapter and write three questions you would ask if you could speak to one of the people discussed in the readings (or the author of the text).

Student C: Read the assigned chapter and find three ideas that are similar to things we learned in the last chapter.

Student D: Read the assigned chapter and find three ideas that are new or different from others we have studied.

Student E: Read the assigned chapter and write three new words that you did not know.

In the following class session, all students A meet together to pool information. All students B, C, and D meet as well for five or ten minutes to clarify and expand their ideas. Finally, students A - E return to their own cooperative learning group and share the information they got from the chapter as well as from the expert group. Each cooperative team is then assigned to write three possible quiz questions for the chapter. The team must know the answers to their own questions because the teacher compiles the items and administers the quiz to the class.

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Q&A

Cooperative Learning with Limited-English-Proficient Students

Prepared by Evelyn Jacob and Beverly Mattson

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Helping limited-English-proficient (LEP) students achieve academically and develop the English language skills necessary to successfully function in classrooms is a major educational concern. Theory and research indicate that cooperative learning methods may provide a way to achieve these dual goals for language minority students who have limited English proficiency.

What Is Cooperative Learning?

Cooperative learning involves small groups of two to six students in tasks that require cooperation and positive interdependence among individuals of each group. Students aid their peers in completing learning tasks and are rewarded for rendering that aid. Unlike the more traditional reward structures found in classrooms where students who work alone or in small groups are rewarded on an individual or a competitive basis, the cooperative reward structures used in cooperative learning place students "in a situation where the task-related efforts of any individual helps others to be rewarded" (Slavin, 1983, p.4).

How Can Cooperative Learning Contribute To The Education Of LEP Students?

Although research on cooperative learning with LEP students is just beginning, the evidence suggests that cooperative learning methods can contribute in several important ways. First, they provide opportunities for face-to-face interaction among students around school tasks. Current research in second language acquisition suggests that such interactions are important for acquiring a language (Krashen, 1981). Second, the methods raise students' academic achievement levels (Slavin, 1983). Third, the methods improve intergroup relations and self-esteem (Slavin, 1983).

Cooperative learning methods can be used with all LEP students and in any type of program or class. The methods are helpful with students from kindergarten through college at all levels of proficiency, in ESL pullout classes, sheltered English classes, or mainstream classes. Subjects can include English as a second language or content areas such as math, science, and social studies.

What Kinds Of Cooperative Learning Programs Are There?

While all cooperative learning methods apply the basic principle of cooperative task and/or cooperative reward structures, there are various kinds of cooperative learning methods. These differ in philosophy of education, nature of learning supported, kind of cooperation, student roles and communication, and teacher roles (Kagan, 1985b). After a brief description of each major approach, we apply the method to a vocabulary lesson.

Peer Practice. Group members drill and assist one another in learning predetermined content with the aim of bringing every student to his or her highest level of achievement. Examples of peer practice methods include Student Teams Achievement Division (STAD) and Teams-Games Tournaments (TGT) (Slavin, 1986).

In a STAD vocabulary lesson a teacher first selects words for the students to learn and provides direct instruction on the words. Next, students work in their groups to reinforce and practice what the teacher has presented, often using study sheets prepared by the teacher. After the groups practice, each student takes an individual quiz. Results of the quiz are used for individual grades and group scores. To calculate group scores, points are awarded based on differences between each child's current score and previous performances; these points are then combined for a group score. Groups meeting predetermined criteria earn rewards and recognition.

Jigsaw. All groups are given the same task, for example, mastering a learning unit. Within groups each member is given primary responsibility for a unique part of the unit. Each group member then works in an "expert" group with members from other groups who have responsibility for the same content. After mastering the material in these expert groups, the students return to their "home" groups to present the material in which they are now expert. Students then take individual tests on the entire unit. Examples are original *Jigsaw* (Aronson, Blaney, Stephan, Sikes, & Snapp, 1978) and *Jigsaw II* (Slavin, 1986).

In an original *Jigsaw* vocabulary lesson, a teacher develops subsets of a word list derived from different narrative texts. Each group member is then given one text and set of words. Students then meet in their expert groups to read the texts and learn the words. They look up definitions and put the words

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into new sentences. After all students in the expert groups have learned the material, they return to their home groups to teach the others the words in their text. Each student then is tested on all the words.

Cooperative Projects. Students work to produce a group project, which they may have a hand in selecting. This approach emphasizes higher order skills such as analysis, evaluation, and synthesis. Usually, individuals within each group make a unique contribution to the group's efforts. In addition, groups frequently make unique contributions to the class as a whole without overt between-group competition. Examples are *Group Investigation* (Sharan & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 1979) and *Co-op Co-op* (Kagan, 1985a, 1985b).

In *Group Investigation* students help choose the words they investigate and learn. For example, after reading a story selected by the teacher, each student writes down a list of four words he or she wants to investigate. Each group compiles a composite list, removing redundant words. The whole class then uses these lists to create subgroups of words identified. Student groups select which subgroup of words they want to investigate. In addition to identifying definitions and parts of speech, student groups might examine synonyms and explore the subtle differences in meanings among them, or they might compare English words to similar words in their native languages. Each group decides what kind of final product to prepare. This might be writing a story using the words or constructing a bilingual dictionary. After each group has shared its product with the whole class, evaluation of products can be done by the teacher alone or jointly by teacher and students.

Learning Together. This is a framework for applying cooperative learning principles (D.W. Johnson & R. Johnson, 1975; D.W. Johnson, R. Johnson, Holubec, & Roy, 1984). It does not have a specific method of organization, but outlines decisions teachers need to make to apply cooperative learning. It emphasizes positive interdependence among students, individual accountability, and students' use of collaborative skills.

Holubec (1984) applies *Learning Together* to a vocabulary lesson. The teacher assigns roles to each student in the groups. The roles are *starter* (gets group started promptly), *praiser* (encourages others), *checker* (makes sure everyone knows the words), and *mover* (writes for the group and keeps them on task). Students are given study sheets with the words. In groups, students provide parts of speech, write definitions, complete sentences with blanks, make up test sentences to exchange with other groups, and review the words. After group work, students are tested individually, but each individual's final grade for the lesson is the average grade of their group. The teacher observes the groups working, acknowledging improvement in group skills and making suggestions for improvement.

Curriculum Packages. In addition to the methods discussed above, several curriculum packages are available. *Finding Out/Descubrimiento* is a science/math curriculum for bilingual Spanish-English students in grades 2-3 (Cohen, DeAvila, & Intiti, 1981, cited in Kagan, 1986). While other packages can be used with LEP students, materials are provided only in English. *Team Assisted Individualization (TAI)* is a math program for grades 2-7 (Slavin, 1985), while *Rotation Science Centers (RSC)* is for science in grades 3 and upward (Kagan, 1985a). *Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC)* is a reading/writing program for grades 3-4 (Slavin, 1986).

What Should Be Considered In Selecting Appropriate Cooperative Learning Methods?

Teachers need not select just one method; in fact, many use more than one approach with their students. The specific methods selected will depend significantly on a teacher's instructional goals—both for subject matter content and for communication experiences in English. Teachers may also take into account their objectives for development of collaborative skills; the ages, ethnicity, and levels of English proficiency of their students; the time allotted to a unit; and the daily schedule for an activity.

Subject matter goals. Peer practice methods appear best suited for learning basic skills and content with single right answers. *Jigsaw* methods are useful for mastering text, while *cooperative project* approaches are useful for analytic and creative thinking. *Learning Together* emphasizes the development of interpersonal and group skills. (See Kagan, 1985a.)

Communication goals. In *peer practice* approaches, students assume roles of *tutor* and *tutee* with much of the interaction focused around drill and practice. In *Jigsaw* approaches, students may also assume roles of *expert consultant* and *team leader* in addition to *tutor* and *tutee*. Interactions may include expert presentations, discussion and analysis among experts, and tutoring. In *cooperative project* approaches, student roles are expanded further to include *investigator* and *resource gatherer*. Interactions also expand to include planning, decision making, critical analysis and synthesis, and creativity. (See Kagan, 1985b.)

How Can Teachers Implement Cooperative Learning Methods?

After selecting an appropriate method, teachers need to prepare the necessary materials and arrange the room to facilitate cooperative group work. This might involve developing study and quiz sheets for peer practice, or dividing up a text assignment into parts for *Jigsaw*. Rearranging the furniture may include placing tables and chairs in circles or clusters in discrete areas around the room.

Teachers need to divide the class into groups of two to six members, the specific size depending on the method chosen. Teachers generally use one of two methods: teacher-selected assignments or random assignment. In either case, groups

should be heterogeneous with regard to ability, gender, native language, and English language proficiency.

Initially, teachers need to establish guidelines on how groups will function. Students should be told that each group member needs to assist other members of the group with understanding the material or completing the project. If students have not worked in cooperative groups before, teachers should conduct team-building activities before implementing cooperative learning.

After explaining the task and desired behaviors, teachers need to monitor and intervene in groups, both for accomplishment of academic tasks and for desired collaborative behavior. In some instances, teachers may need to assist students in resolving group difficulties.

After the groups have finished their work, they can be evaluated on task performance and on the way the groups functioned. Teachers may lead students in discussions regarding their perceptions of how well their group worked together.

Resources

A resource guide on cooperative learning for LEP students is available from Evelyn Jacob, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1118 22nd St. NW, Washington, DC 20037. The guide lists practitioners and districts using cooperative learning with LEP students, associations for cooperative learning, training opportunities, and current research projects. A good introduction to the use of cooperative learning methods with LEP students is Kagan's (1986) chapter.

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LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

This section discusses language development for students who are non-English speakers or who are very limited English proficient.

According to current research, the first two to three years of second language learning is spent acquiring the language of social interaction, or basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS). The materials presented here will help teachers facilitate that acquisition.

We hope these ideas and materials will make this process exciting and interesting for both you and your students.

> Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) refers to the "manifestation of language proficiency in everyday communicative contests."
>
> - Jim Cummins

SOME DIFFERENCES BETWEEN FIRST AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Time allowed for learning

First Language: Almost unlimited; need for language is minimal early in life.

Second Language: Usually limited; need for second language is often immediate.

Exposure to language

First Language: Constant, daily.

Second Language: Partial; probably not used with friends and family.

Formalized activities

First Language: Unnecessary at first, learning comes naturally, without awareness.

Second Language: Necessary to a degree. Many aspects of the language must be taught.

Sequencing of skills

First Language: Natural progression; one skill added at a time.

Second Language: All skills needed at once; attempts are sometimes made to teach them concurrently.

Facility for distinguishing and reproducing language sounds

First Language: Apparently unlimited; child easily learns to reproduce any of the sounds he/she hears.

Second Language: Apparently becomes quite limited; the older child and adult are conditioned to hear only the sounds used in the native language; have less facility for reproducing unfamiliar sounds.

Basic process of language

First Language:

Experimentation; invention. hears.

Second Language:

Following models, patterns, and rules.

Awareness of language "rules"

First Language:

Initially, non-existent. "Rules" internalized from the language itself; learner does not have to formulate them or hear them formulated.

Second Language:

Understanding of rules gives reasons for error, guidelines for correcting errors. Can consciously apply rules to new situations. Often transfers rules for native language to new language.

Linguistic interference

First Language:

No interference from a previously learned language.

Second Language:

New language may differ from native language in sound, syntax, meaning; causes interferences in learning.

Relationship of language to culture

First Language:

Language relates the child to a speech community; strengthens cultural identity.

Second Language:

Danger of alienation from native culture; "culture shock".

CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDENTS' BASIC INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS

BICS = The informal language used for conversation, sometimes called "playground language". A student usually masters conversational English first (within 2-3 years).

Listening Comprehension	Students generally understand non-technical speech, including conversation with teachers and classmates. Since they sometimes misinterpret utterances, native speakers of English must adjust their vocabulary and rate of speech.
Speaking	
Grammar and Word Order	Students have a fair command of basic sentence patterns. They avoid constructions which demand more control of grammar and word order. They also begin to over generalize.
Vocabulary	The vocabulary which students use is adequate for social conversations, but not for sucdessful participation i content subjects.
Pronunciation	Although students may have a noticeable accent, their pronunciation is understandable.
Fluency	Students' fluency is smooth, although the length of their utterances is somewhat limited by difficulties with English. Their speech may be marked by restatements, repetitions, and hesitations.
Reading	Reading skills improve, and students profit greatly from inclusion in basal reading groups. Although students may now prepare some assignments independently their performance in content classes is usually inadequate.
Writing	Students use more complex sentence structure in their writing. The introduction of many irregular word forms adds to the difficulty of learning English and students need assistance with them.

Adapted from the ESL Program Handbook, Fairfax County Public Schools, Fairfax, Virginia.

SAMPLE IDEAS FOR USING BICS WHEN TEACHING THE LEP STUDENT

The following activities are suggested for the regular classroom teacher. they are encouraged to choose songs and games most appropriate for the limited English proficient (LEP) student(s) in their classroom.

1. In teaching vocabulary, use songs and games whenever possible and appropriate ("The Alphabet Song," "Simon Says," "Chutes and Ladders").

2. Have the student(s) start a picture dictionary or index card file using magazines, newspaper, and catalog pictures as well as students' own drawings. As the dictionary grows and the student(s) become more skilled in reading and writing English, he/she can: label the pictures with words and then form sentences, alphabetize all labels or group them by subject, classify objects pictured by size, color, shape, use, availability, etc. Select a main category (e.g., food). Choose words which describe aspects of this topic (e.g., likes, dislikes, food groups, common in U.S., common in native country, cooked or raw, served at what meal, source, etc.); use this picture resource as a base for vocabulary and sentence building exercises.

3. Have the student(s) name anything and everything. When able, write labels for objects.

4. Pantomime is a universal language. Set aside regular time when the whole class communicates on an even footing.

5. Listening practice is important. Read prose, poetry and rhymes aloud to students. Use colorfully illustrated books, records and tapes (Dr. Seuss, folk tales, myths, fables, etc.).

6. Have the student(s) trace the outline of a friend on large sheet of paper. Orally or in writing name the various body parts. Clothing can be colored in and labeled.

7. Use a calendar to teach days of the week, months, numbers, seasons and holidays. The calendar can be used to introduce the past, future tense, and place (e.g., "Monday is after Tuesday.", "The five is above the twelve.")

8. Label objects in the classroom in both English and students' native language. Use sentence labels - "This is a clock."

9. Provide the student(s) with opportunities to teach the class portions of his native language. He/she could start with numbers, the alphabet and body parts and then graduate to sentences and songs.

10. After developing basic listening/speaking vocabulary, recognizing words by sight, and being able to form the sounds in English as well as recognize their written form, he/she may be started in a basal reader. Find one that is interesting and a challenge. Remember that some older students are already proficient readers and need to translate the process into English.

11. Introduce student(s) to school staff and tour the building. Follow-up the tour by having student(s) make a detailed map of the building, labeling rooms by name, use, and including their contents. Younger students might start by mapping the classroom while older students would go on to drawing maps of the community and to reading maps of the city and state.

12. Ask students to draw a family picture or bring a photo to class. Use it to teach names of family relationships (father, son, sister, brother), pronouns and provide a basis for discussing life roles.

13. Use easy crossword puzzles and word finds to reinforce vocabulary.

14. Use commercial programs the student can use independently. (Example: Bill Martin's Instant Readers, Systems 80, Tutorette Language Master, PAL Language System, etc.)

15. Encourage your students to keep a journal in their own language (like a diary). Include things that they have learned in English. The purpose is self-expression. The journal should not be graded.

16. Teach the student(s) the letter-sound correspondence of English. Suggestion: Have the student make a booklet and put a letter on each page. Each student should then record words as he learns them, on the correct page and then perhaps draw a picture. Student can be instructed to record all vocabulary cards in the booklet as they are learned.

17. Use peer tutors to work with students. A student who can handle being excused from routine assignments or an older student will benefit from "teaching" this student.

Adapted from English as a Second Language Survival Kit

THE NATURAL APPROACH IN THE CLASSROOM

The Natural Approach is designed to develop basic communication skills. The developmental stages are: (1) Comprehension (preproduction), (2) Early Production, and (3) Speech Emergence. This approach to teaching language has been proven to be particularly effective with limited English proficient students.

Stage 1 COMPREHENSION

In order to maximize opportunities for comprehension experiences, Natural Approach instructors (1) create activities designed to teach students to recognize the meaning of words used in meaningful contexts, and (2) teach students to guess at the meaning of phrases without knowing all of the words and structures of the sentences.

a. ALWAYS USE VISUAL AIDS (pictures, objects, gestures).
b. MODIFY YOUR SPEECH to aid comprehension: speak more slowly, emphasize key words, simplify vocabulary and grammar, use related ideas, do not talk out of context.
c. DO NOT FORCE PRODUCTION. Students will use English when they are ready. They often experience a "silent period" which can last for weeks or even months.
d. FOCUS ATTENTION ON KEY VOCABULARY.

Teacher Activities in the Comprehension Stage.

a. Total Physical Response (TPR). The teacher gives commands to which the students react with their bodies as well as their brains.
b. Supplying meaningful input based on items in the classroom or brought to class. (Who has the ___? Who is wearing a ___?)
c. Supplying meaningful input based on pictures.

Student Responses in the Comprehension Stage.

a. An action (TPR) - See "Total Physical Response in the Classroom" (p. 11).
b. The name of a fellow student (from b., c. above).
c. Gestures.
d. Students say yes/no in English.
e. Students point to item or picture.
f. Children do not initially make many attempts to communicate using words; rather they indicate their comprehension nonverbally.

Stage 2 EARLY SPEECH

In non-threatening environments, students move voluntarily into Stage 2. Stage 2 begins when students begin using English words to give:

a. yes/no answers.
b. one-word answers.
c. lists of words.
d. two word strings and short phrases.

The following are instructor question techniques to encourage the transition from Stage 1 to Stage 2:

The following are instructor question techniques to encourage the transition from Stage 1 to Stage 2:

a. Yes/no questions (Is Jimmy wearing a sweater today?)
b. Choice questions (Is this a pencil or an eraser?)
c. Questions which can be answered with a single word. (What does the woman have in her hand? Book. Where, When, Who?)
d. Open sentence with pause for student response (Mike is wearing a blue shirt, but Ron is wearing a _____ shirt.)

During the Early Speech Stage, the instructor must give meaningful and understandable input which will encourage the transition to Stage 3. Therefore all student responses should be expanded if possible. Here is a sample exchange between the teacher and the class:

Instructor: What do we see in this picture?
Class: Woman.
Instructor: Yes, there is a woman in this picture. Is there a man?
Class: Yes.
Instructor: Yes, there is. There is a woman and a man. Where is the man?
Class: Car.
Instructor: Yes, that's right. The man is in a car. Is he driving the car?
Class: Yes.
Instructor: Yes, he is. He's driving the car.

Other sorts of activities which can be used in Early Speech Stage:

a. open dialogues.
b. guided interviews.
c. open-ended sentences.
d. charts, tables, graphs.
e. newspaper ads.

Stage 3 SPEECH EMERGENCE

In the Speech Emergence Stage, speech production will normally improve in both quantity and quality. The sentences that the students produce become longer, more complex and they use a wider range of vocabulary. Finally, the number of errors will slowly decrease.

Students need to be given the opportunity to use oral and written language whenever possible. When they reach the stage in which speech is emerging beyond the two-word stage, there are many sorts of activities which all foster more comprehension and speech. Some suggestions are:

a. preference ranking.
b. games of all sorts.
c. problem-solving using charts, tables, graphs, maps.
d. advertisements and signs.
e. group discussion.
f. skits (finger plays, flannel boards, puppets).
g. music, radio, television, film strips, slides.
h. writing exercises (especially Language Experience Approach - see page 12, this section).
i. reading.
j. culture.

In general, we may classify language acquisition activities as those in which the focus is on the message, i.e., meaning. These may be of four types:

1. content (culture, subject matter, new information, reading)
2. affective-humanistic (student's own ideas, opinions, experiences)
3. games (focus on using language to participate in the game)
4. problem-solving (focus on using language to locate information)

(From: T.D. Twirl, Department of Linguistics, University of California, San Diego)

TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE IN THE CLASSROOM

Listening and understanding might sometimes be referred to as passive skills, but the mental and physical performances are anything but passive when these activities get going!

WHOLE-BODY INVOLVEMENT WITH TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE ACTIVITIES

Total Physical Response activities (TPR) greatly multiply the amount of language input that can be handled by beginning students. TPR activities tie comprehension with performance in nonthreatening, low-anxiety, whole-body responses. Speech is not required. Students build self-confidence along with a wide-ranging passive vocabulary base.

We recommend that you spend five to ten minutes on listening activities at the beginning or end of every beginner's class.

Students become ready to talk sooner when they are under no pressure to do so. Much more material may be taught for "passive" recognition than when production is required.

TPR activities help students adjust to the school. You can prepare students to understand the behavior required and the instructions they will hear in the mainstream classrooms, in the halls, on fire drills, on trips and at assembly programs.
Appropriate grades: Kindergarten to adult

English Level: New beginners (and up)

Objective: To develop listening skills, vocabulary, learn command forms of verbs, and English word orders.

Presentation:

1. Gather materials indicated for each drill.
2. Give the instruction to the entire class, modeling performance expected.
3. Repeat, varying the order of instructions, and continue to model the performance.
4. Repeat instructions a third time, without modeling, allowing students to copy other students. Praise the students generously.
5. Select small groups of students to go through the actions while the remainder of the class watches.
6. Call on individual volunteers to act out the instructions. The idea is to keep anxiety low with a "no failure" activity, yet still challenge the students with a swift pace and variety of modes, with humorous inclusions of impossible or silly tasks.
7. On the second day, review the first set of commands, allowing more able students to model the actions, giving lavish praise for performance. Introduce new directions while you model the actions.
8. Each day review segments from lessons, combining them with new material, keeping a rapid pace.
9. Add whatever is appropriate to extend vocabulary in areas needed in your classroom and school.
10. Reading lessons may be based on the drills. Make enough copies for your class. Read each command and signal for the class to repeat after you. Call on volunteers to read individual sentences. "Go to the tallest boy." "Bring me the book with the most pages." "Point to the girl who is wearing a pink vest."

TPR 1: Stand/sit/raise/close/open + eyes/mouth/hands/book

Materials needed: Book of any kind for each student

Stand up.
Sit down.
Stand up.
Sit down.
Raise your hand.
Put your hand down.
Stand up.
Raise your hand.
Put your hand down.
Sit down.
Raise two hands.
Put one hand down.
Put the other hand down.
Open your book.
Close your book.
Open your hands.
close your hands.
Close your eyes.
Open your eyes.
Stand up.
Raise your hand.
Put your hand down.
Raise your book.
Put your book down.
Open your book.
Open your mouth.
Close your mouth.
Close your book.
Sit down.
Open your mouth.
Close your mouth.
Shh. (whisper) Be quiet.
Wonderful!

(Model each action as you give the command until most students participate without hesitation.)

(Repeat and review commands after you add new ones. Then repeat the new ones, recombining them before adding more. Keep students feeling successful.)

(Put a finger to your lips; hold students quiet for 30 seconds.)

(Applaud their accomplishments.)

LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE APPROACH

1. The "experience" which will be written about may be a drawing, something the student brought from home, a group experience planned by the teacher (field trip, science experiment, film strip, party, etc.) or simply a topic to discuss.

2. The student is asked to tell about his/her experience.

3. The student then dictates his or her story or experience to the teacher, aide, volunteer, or to another student. The writer copies down the story exactly as it is dictated. (Do not correct the student's grammar while the story is being written down.)

4. The teacher reads the story back, pointing to the words, with the student reading along. With young children at very beginning levels, it may be necessary to read back each sentence as it is dictated.

5. The student reads the story silently and/or aloud to other students or to the teacher.

6. The experience stories are saved and can be used for instruction in all types of reading skills.

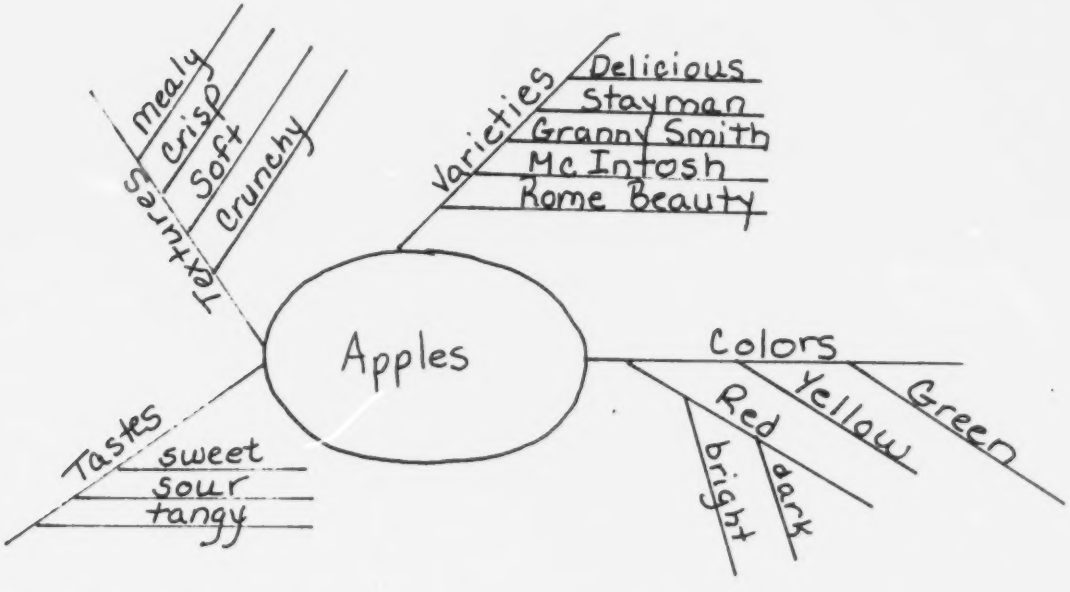
7. When students are ready, they can begin to write their own experience stories. A good way to introduce this is to discuss the experience, write a group experience story, and then have students write their own stories.

8. Students can re-write their own previous stories as their language development progresses, and then illustrate them to make books for other students to read.

(FROM: New England Multifunctional Resource Center for Language and Culture in Education and prepared by Suzanne Iruio.)

Semantic Mapping

The language arts are highly interrelated and therefore should be taught as an integrated language process, not as separate skills. One technique for integrating them is webbing. Webbing uses a word, theme, or book as the central focus and develops from that a variety of oral and written language activities. It also pulls in fine arts and content instruction. For example, a unit on apples might include non-fiction and fiction books about apples; vocabulary used to describe the color, size, texture, taste, and smell of apples; cooking applesauce, etc.; art activities, drawing and painting apples and apple trees; expressions using the word apple ("the apple of my eye"); and songs and poems about apples. There is no limit to the teacher's and children's creativity in interrelating activities around a theme to develop a web that fosters language development.



Example:

VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

Introduction: The instructor writes the word or concept to be studied on the blackboard and asks students to think of as many words as they can relate to that word/concept. An alternate question to initiate the activity could be, "What do you think of when you see the word (topic)?"

Interaction: In small groups or as a whole group, the students brainstorm a list of words related to the key word/concept. These words are written on a sheet of paper or on the blackboard in a list.

Application: Construct the group semantic map by writing the brainstormed words in categories around the key word/concept. Have students suggest labels for these categories, if possible. The instructor may add words or ideas to appropriately complete the group semantic map. Discuss the group's semantic map, pointing out relationships and differences among words. Have students point out new words they learned from this map as well as new meanings for words they already knew.

Expansion: Have students look for words in the semantic map as they read an appropriate story. Students may also be asked to write a paragraph or short story using the words/concept from the semantic map.

SOUND DRILLS FOR ESL STUDENTS

CH

initial

Cheerful Charles chose a cheesy chicken chowder.
Did cheerful Charles choose a cheesy chicken chowder?
If cheerful Charles chose a cheesy chicken chowder,
Where's the cheesy chicken chowder cheerful Charlie chose?

medial

Richard Bachelor munches lunches on the church's benches.
Does Richard Bachelor munch lunches on the church's benches?
If Richard Bachelor munches lunches on the church's benches,
Where on the church's benches does Richard Bachelor munch lunches?

final

Rich Dutch can fetch a wrench for the beach hutch.
Can rich Dutch fetch a wrench for the beach hutch?
If rich Dutch can fetch a wrench for the beach hutch,
Where's a wrench for the beach hutch rich Dutch can fetch?

H

initial

Hateful Henry hid Harvey's horn and hammer.
Did hateful Henry hide Harvey's horn and hammer?
If hateful Henry hid Harvey's horn and hammer,
Where are Harvey's horn and hammer hateful Henry hid?

initial

Happy Harry hurried Helen to her hilltop home.
Did happy Harry hurry Helen to her hilltop home?
If happy Harry hurried Helen to her hilltop home,
Where is the hilltop home happy Harry hurried Helen to?

medial

The Hohokus redhead beheld a beehive behind Johanna's playhouse.
Did the Hohokus redhead behold a beehive behind Johanna's playhouse?
If the Hohokus redhead beheld a beehive behind Johanna's playhouse,
Where's the beehive the Hohokus redhead beheld behind Johanna's playhouse?

LITERACY DEVELOPMENT

Learning to Read

Learning to read is a complex task and it takes time to develop literacy skills. Some are physiological, such as learning to make coordinated eye movements across a line of print. But the central one is cognitive, learning to associate abstract symbols with the concrete sounds of the spoken language and the meanings they represent. In order to read any written language, a person must master basic skills, no matter what the writing system may be.

1. THE NON-READER MIGRANT STUDENT HAS TWO MAJOR PROBLEMS:

   A. To learn English

   B. To learn how to read

These problems should not be confused. It is quite possible to teach conversational English without using written materials at all. Moreover, trying to teach the student to become literate in English at the same time he/she is learning to speak English will have the effect of setting two hurdles before him/her. Progress is likely to be slow and the student may be easily discouraged. The problems might best be dealt with separately. As with the pre-literate kindergartner or first grader, reading might be delayed until the student has a good understanding of the sound system of English and a basic vocabulary. Then, the sight words and language experience methods may be initiated. An alternative approach is to teach the migrant student to read in the native language first. Sometimes important literacy skills can be taught in only a few weeks and applied to English later.

2. SKILLS THAT MAY TRANSFER IF STUDENTS ARE LITERATE IN THEIR OWN LANGUAGE

   A. Comprehension

      1. Getting the main idea
      2. Getting important details
      3. Developing visual images
      4. Predicting outcomes
      5. Drawing conclusions
      6. Sequencing

   B. Following Directions

   C. Study Skills

   D. Picture Clues

   E. Mechanical

   F. Literacy Skills

From Cultural Awareness Manual, Migrant Education Office, Oregon

Holistic Approach to Literacy Instruction

The rationale underlying our holistic approach to literacy instruction can be summarized in seven points:

1. Written language is learned in the same way and with the same ease as oral language, when occurring in a functional context. In other words, literacy instruction is to be approached not as simply decoding symbols, but as a way of accomplishing things. Official forms, street signs, and student-created writing play an important role in this approach (Harste, Woodward, and Burke, 1984).

2. Meaning is central to both oral and written language. Imagine how difficult it would be to learn to speak if one were mostly exposed to only the random sounds that English uses -- if one heard sounds like eeeee or zzzzz and were somehow expected to turn them into words. Similarly, literacy learners can be confused by materials that divide language into meaningless segments. They learn more readily when the reading materials are based on their language use and current experiences with the language. (Goodman and Goodman, 1980).

3. Background knowledge and experiences are key contributors to written and oral language comprehension. These experiences can be drawn not only from the students' varied pasts, but also from occurrences in the classroom. Instructional strategies must be designed to provide such experiences (Eisner, 1982).

4. Learning is social. Language learning is supported by peer and other interpersonal interactions. Individuals participating in group literacy "events" are able to collaborate with one another, share experiences, and support one another's literacy experiments. This means that there will be talking in the classroom as students read, write, or draw (Halliday, 1978).

5. Literacy is a lifelong process. All participants in the holistic classroom--teacher, supervisor, and students--are involved in adding to their current store of literacy knowledge (Harste, Woodward, and Burke, 1984).

6. A low-risk environment encourages learning. The learners should feel that they have the freedom to experiment and that they are the most important monitors of their learning. They need to develop self-confidence and trust in themselves as they learn to read and write (Graves, 1982).

7. Reading, writing, listening, and speaking interact in a mutually supportive way. It does not confuse the student when all these language skills are used in class from the very beginning. Rather, each reinforces understanding of the language as a whole (Weaver, 1980).

Goodman and Goodman. "Reading and Writing Relationships: Pragmatic Functions" in the Journal of Language Arts, 1983, 60 (5), pp. 590-599.

RECOMMENDED DOs FOR TEACHING READING TO THE LEP STUDENT

1. If possible, encourage the child to read in the native language before starting to read in English. Sometimes a six-week start is all that is needed in the native language.

2. Do encourage peer teaching. Place the child in a class with English speaking students who will be able to help him in a peer teaching situation.

3. Do give the ESL migrant student ample opportunity to read story articles and books instead of just short passages requiring concentrated study. Choose material for enjoyment, or better yet, let the pupil choose it.

4. Focus on communication, not individual words.

5. Do provide more than the usual exposure to native English speech. Listening is important because the child imitates what has been heard. Make daily use of records and storytelling.

6. Do remember that what determines the difficulty of a passage is not mainly vocabulary, but complexity of structure, thought, and concept.

7. Do encourage the student to choose reading material similar to what will be needed in other subject area courses.

8. Do make up your own practice items for reading; most commercially prepared ones are geared to native English speakers who have a different and more extensive vocabulary. As the student progresses, begin to move into less structurally controlled passages. Use visual aides as much as possible whenever new vocabulary is encountered.

9. Incorporate Big Books and Shared Reading (see p. 53) in your instruction.

10. Make your own books relative to interest for a personalized library.

READ-FOR-INFORMATION GUIDE

1. Think about why you want to know this information.

2. Make a list of some of the things that you already know about the subject. Call it What I Know. Keep adding to this list as you find important information that you want to remember.

3. Make a list of questions that you have about the subject. Call it What I Want to Know. Keep adding to this list whenever you think of a question that is important.

4. Think about where you can find the answers to your questions.

5. Look for answers to the questions that are most interesting or important to you as you read.

6. Organize the important information by putting ideas and concepts about the same things together.

7. Share your information with others. Present it in the form of a play or a report, lead a discussion about it, or think of another interesting way to share it.

Adapted from: Goodman, Yetta and Burke, Carolyn. Reading Strategies: Focus and Comprehension (1980). New York: Holt Rhinehart. pp. 202-205.

WHAT I KNOW	WHAT I WANT TO KNOW

SPIDERS

How many spiders have you seen in the last week? If you are observant - that is, if you watch the world around you carefully - you have probably seen more than one. Spiders live in most places in the world. They live both indoors and outdoors. They come in many sizes, shapes, and colors.

Although many people are afraid of spiders, they are not harmful animals. They usually do not bite unless they are disturbed, and very few spider bites are poisonous. Spiders are really helpful. Each year they eat many thousands of harmful insects which they trap in webs.

The body of the spider has two parts joined by a slender neck or waist. It has eight legs. The top or front part of the body contains the spider's head. The bottom or back part of the body is called the abdomen. On the bottom of the spider near the back edge are its spinnerets, which make the silk used not only for spider webs, but for the spider's egg sacs as well. These spinnerets look like tiny tubes.

When a spider starts to spin a web, it presses the spinnerets against something hard and out comes some of the liquid silk. The silk hardens in the air. Different kinds of spiders make different kinds of webs.

Many people have been interested in spiders. Scientists have studied the behavior of spiders under different conditions. Some people can tell exciting or scary tales or superstitions about spiders. What do you know about spiders?

Passage by Yetta Goodman, based on the following references: Compton's Dictionary of Natural Science, vol. 2, (Chicago: F.E. Compton Co., 1966), pp. 598-600, and The World Book Encyclopedia, vol. 17, under the word "Spiders" (Chicago: Field Enterprises Corporation, 1966), pp. 611-15.

SHARED READING

The emphasis on interactive reading of at least one story each day to children is especially important for LEP children. The experience with books and stories will be a positive factor in developing their oral language fluency and building their concepts. Book interactions provide both LEP children and teachers with stimulating and pleasurable ways of linking literacy and direct life experiences that can integrate language processes across the entire school curriculum.

SHARED READING (adapted from Don Holdaway)

1. Choose a text - a story, song, poem, or other reading.
2. Enlarge the text so all students can see it at once. This can be done by using commercial big books, making your own big books, copying the text on chart paper, or using an opaque projector or overhead projector.
3. Read the text to the students, pointing to each word as you read it.
4. Encourage prediction by covering words that are easy to predict (because of the context, pictures, rhyme, etc.) and having students guess them.
5. Use masking devices to uncover parts of words, teaching students how to use phonics to confirm predictions.
6. Masking devices can also be used to show prefixes, suffixes and roots, or to fix attention on any word for whatever reason.
7. After students have heard the text several times, they join in while you are reading. Continue to point at each word as it is read.
8. Have individual students read and point.
9. Have small copies of the text available for students to take home and read to their parents.
10. Shared reading texts that are predictable can be used for patterned writing, in which students write their own variations on the patterns in the text.

Prepared by Suzanne Irujo.

ReQuest - A Strategy to Promote the Art of Questioning

Manzo and Associates

"A highly developed art of intelligent questioning is a major reflector of learning. This questioning skill can only be developed if a child can be given a better reason for asking a question than to demonstrate his abysmal ignorance."

The teacher's prime object when using ReQuest is to guide the student through as much of a reading selection as is necessary for the student to complete the passage successfully. Guiding a student's reading through a series of sentences consists of giving the rules and playing the game.

Rules: "The purpose of this lesson is to improve your understanding of what you read. We will each read the first sentence silently. Then we will take turns asking questions about the sentence and what it means. You will ask questions first, then I will ask questions. Try to ask the kind of questions a teacher might ask, in the way a teacher might ask them. You may ask me as many questions as you wish. When you are asking me questions, I will close my book (or pass the book to you if there is only one between us.) When I ask questions, you will close your book."

Any questions asked deserve to be answered. It is cheating for the teacher to withhold information or play dumb to draw out the student. It is unacceptable for the student to answer, "I don't know," since he/she can attempt to explain why he/she can not answer. If questions are unclear to either party, requests for rephrasing or clarification are in order. The responder should be ready to justify his/her answer by reference back to the text or to expand on background that was used to build or limit an answer. Whenever possible, if there is uncertainty about an answer, the responder should check his/her answer against the text.

Playing the game: The student and the teacher each silently read the first section (sentence, paragraph, or other amount as decided by the teacher) of the selection. The teacher closes his/her book and the student asks as many questions as he/she wishes. The teacher answers the questions as fully as he/she is able - modeling complete response behavior. The teacher requests rephrasing of any question he/she can't answer due to poor syntax and/or incorrect logic.

After the teacher has answered all the questions the student wishes to ask, the student closes his/her book. Then the teacher asks as many questions as he/she thinks will profitably add to the student's understanding of the text.

The teacher should attempt to model good questioning behavior. This means that the types of questions the teacher asks should be those he/she wishes the student to ask of him/her. If questions are limited to factual recall and recognition, the comprehension will be shallow. If the questions posed are thought-provoking, the developing answers will promote critical thinking and full comprehension.

After the first section of text, the teacher can pose questions that require integration and evaluation of prior text. So can the student.

Improvement of student questioning behavior can be reflected by informative statements like, "Hey, that's a great question because I have to do such and such (i.e. picture the store in my mind, recall what I know about mammals, or go back to the first sentence to double check, etc.) in order to answer it," or "Your questions make me think like my questions are supposed to make you think."

ReQuest is continued until the student can provide a reasonable (i.e. supported) response to the question, "What do you think is going to happen in the rest of this selection? Why?" Then say, "Read to the end of the selection to see what the author writes."

Any other follow up activity may be used.

Manzo and Associates, 1969

KEY WORDS

1. Prepare cards to write the words on (approximately 3" x 8", heavy tag board, with a hole punch in one corner if they are to be kept on rings).

2. Each day, engage each student in conversation and get him or her to tell you a word that's very important to him or her that day.

3. Write the word on the card while the student is watching, sounding it out as you write and then repeating the word.

4. Give the card to the student and have him or her read the word.

5. The students keep their words in boxes, coffee cans, or on rings. They read all their words to you or to another student each day. Any words that they can't remember are discarded, explaining that the word must not have been important enough to remember.

6. Students can draw pictures of their words, try to find them in books, classify them according to meaning or sound, alphabetize them, write them in sand, spell them on flannel or magnetic boards, etc.

7. As students learn to read their friends' words, they make copies of them and add them to their packets.

8. When they have 8-10 words, they can begin writing stories using them.

Adapted from Sylvia Ashton Warner.

PROCESS WRITING

This is a description of one form of basic process writing - remember that there are many variations.

1. Have students keep a writing folder containing ideas for topics, rough drafts that they are working on, and copies of final drafts.

2. Motivate students to write. This can be done in various ways. Brainstorm possible topics and let them choose their own. Show a picture with several interpretations, discuss them, and have students write about their favorite interpretation. Students can draw their own pictures to write about. You can assign a topic and do a group brainstorming to elicit everything they already know about the topic. The purpose of this pre-writing activity is to get students thinking and to help them organize their thoughts.

3. Have students write a rough draft in which they record and further organize their thoughts from the pre-writing activity. Make sure they know that the rough draft does not have to be perfect - it doesn't even have to be good! They just have to get words on paper.

4. Provide feedback on rough drafts and skill instruction. There are various ways to do this: teacher-student writing conferences, peer editing, response groups of 4-5 students who read and respond to each other's writing, whole class instruction focusing on one type of problem at a time, or a combination of these. It helps for response groups and peers (and teachers!) to have some kind of guidelines or check-list to follow, and it's always nice to give a positive reaction first. Look for organization, clarity, style, use of vocabulary. Don't worry about mechanics of spelling, punctuation and grammar at this point. That comes later.

5. Have students revise their rough drafts, incorporating suggestions made by teacher, peers, or response groups, and applying skills discussed in group instruction.

6. Steps 5 and 6 may be repeated as many times as desired, until student and teacher are both satisfied that the piece of writing is as good as it can get. The writing may also be "put on hold" at this stage and returned to later.

7. Have students correct spelling, grammar, and punctuation, with the help of peers, teacher and dictionaries. They then recopy the final draft.

8. Publish final drafts in individual books, class books, newsletters, computer networks, by reading aloud - anywhere, as long as it is apparent that the writing was done for somebody else to read.

DIALOGUE JOURNALS

1. Make sure each student has a notebook to use in journal writing.

2. How you begin a dialogue journal depends on the age and literacy development of your students. Younger students can draw a picture and write about it. With older students, it will help them get started if you write the first entry for them to respond to. Something special about yourself usually elicits a good response.

3. Be sure that students know that they can write about anything they want to in their journals, that they won't be graded, and that nobody but you will read them.

4. Students can write during class at a specified time, during class when they have free time, or outside of class.

5. Be sure to respond to each journal entry. It is better to have students write once or twice a week and for you to respond each time, than for them to write every day and you only respond once a week. With pre-literate students, you must write your response while they are watching, sounding it out as you write, and pointing to the words as you re-read it to them.

6. Never correct students' entries. You may ask about meaning when you don't understand something, but don't make comments such as "not clear" or "not enough detail". If a student uses an incorrect form, you may provide the correct form if your response seems natural to do so.

7. Try not to dominate the "conversation". Let students initiate topics. Too many questions in your responses will result in less language produced by the student, not more.

8. The more often students write and the longer they continue writing, the greater the benefits of journal writing.

ENGLISH IN THE CONTENT AREAS

ENGLISH IN THE CONTENT AREAS

Once your limited English Proficient (LEP) students have mastered social language (BICS) you will find that they will still have difficulty with academic materials.

Communicative competence in a second language will not provide your students with sufficient skills to perform successfully in academic settings. Social interaction provides many contextual clues, such as tone of voice, body language, and facial expression. These are not present when the students are expected to gain needed information from printed materials.

Some of the characteristics by which you may identify students who are in need of language instruction in the content area are:

1. Students understand most conversations involving native English speakers.

2. They have good control of most syntactic patterns and usually convey meaning accurately in reasonably complex sentences. Their speech may include errors which do not interfere with communication.

3. Vocabulary is adequate for participation in conversations and classroom discussions. Delivery and sentence length are similar to native speakers, but upon close evaluation it will become apparent that there are still many words with which your students are unfamiliar.

4. Skill in reading improves, but these students probably are not reading on grade level. Although they may now prepare some assignments independently, performance in the content classes is generally inadequate.

Research tells us that it takes five to seven years for LEP students to acquire sufficient language to function as well as native speakers academically.

It is our hope that this section will provide you with strategies for teaching English in the Content Areas.

> Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) refers to "the manipulation of language in de-contextualized academic situations."
>
> - Jim Cummins

TIPS FOR
TEACHING THROUGH THE CONTENT AREAS

1. Plan lessons that are related to your students' lives, utilize a lot of visuals, and provide for "hands on" kinds of involvement. For example, drawing, coloring, and labeling maps in geography and pinpointing where the students came from is far more valuable that simply listening to a talk about maps.

2. Communicate individually with your students as much as time permits. Avoid using complicated words or complex sentences. Keep the volume and intonation as normal as possible. Avoid the use of idioms. Incorporate a lot of body language. These strategies will be used subconsciously, for the most part, by those whose main goal is to communicate.

3. If possible, use a "satisfactory/unsatisfactory" grade option until your ESL students are able to compete successfully with native speakers. Your students may be ready sooner than expected, since many of them adapt very rapidly. It is important to remember that often the students, particularly those who are older, will already have a high level of academic understanding in the first language and may even surpass native speakers once they have proficiency in the new language.

4. Record your lectures or talks on tape. Your students need to be able to listen to them as many times as necessary for understanding.

5. Ask some of your native-speaking students to simplify the textbook by rewriting the chapters. The job can be made as easy as possible by giving each native-speaking student just a few pages to simplify. The simplified materials not only aid your ESL students but other students who may find the regular text too difficult. The students who do the rewriting are provided with opportunities to review and reinforce initial concepts and understandings.

6. Choose native-speaking students who take effective, comprehensible notes to duplicate them for your ESL students. By this means, the latter can be provided with study aids.

7. Try to answer all questions that your students ask but avoid overly detailed explanations. Simple answers which get right to the point will be understood best. If possible, point to objects and pictures, or demonstrate actions to help get the meanings across.

8. If you are in a situation in which lectures are appropriate, try to make them as comprehensible as possible. Emphasize key words and phrases through intonation and repetition. Summarize on the chalkboard or on an overhead transparency as you are talking. Give concrete examples. Use pictures and charts, map out ideas, use gestures, acting out, simplifications, explanation of ideas, or whatever is necessary to ensure understanding. Definitions, comparisons, and the like can be incorporated in the lectures to clarify new words and concepts. For example, in a history lesson you might say, "The government's funds were diminished. It was almost out of money." Thus the phrase "funds were diminished" is made more comprehensible.

9. Check to see that what you are saying is understood. Frequently ask questions such as, "Do you understand?" or "Do you have any questions?" and be very aware of the feedback you are getting. Blank stares or puzzled looks are sure signs that you are not being understood. Often it is better to ask more specific questions directly related to the preceding utterance. For example, after saying, "In Arizona, rainfall is minimal during most of the year," you might check for understanding by asking, "Does it rain much in Arizona?" Asking a question such as this to confirm interpretation is yet another means by which your students can be exposed to new words and concepts without losing the message.

10. Encourage your students to use their bilingual dictionaries when necessary or to ask questions when they don't understand important concepts. Help them to guess at meanings first by using context. Assure them that they do not have to understand every word to comprehend the main idea.

11. Reinforce key concepts over and over in a variety of situations and activities. Hearing about the concepts once or twice is not enough. Your students need to be exposed to them several times through a wide range of experiences in order for internalization to take place.

12. Whenever it is possible, utilize tutors who speak the native language of your students. Such help is especially important to students operating at beginning to intermediate stages.

13. Request that appropriate content-area books be ordered for the library in the students' native languages. These can be particularly useful to your students in comprehending the concepts while the second language is being mastered. ^They also provide your students with a means of maintaining and developing skills in the native language.

14. Become informed as much as possible on the various cultures represented by your students. Knowing how particular students might react to classroom events and being able to interpret nonverbal symbols could help prevent misunderstanding and confusion.

15. Acknowledge and incorporate students' cultures whenever possible. For instance, differing number systems can be introduced in math, customs and traditions in social science, various medicines in natural science, native dances and games in celebrations, languages can be demonstrated for appreciation, and literature with translations can be shared.

16. Prepare your students for your lessons and reading assignments. You might ask them what they already know about the subject. Encourage them to look for main ideas by giving them a framework or outline beforehand. Ask them to predict outcomes and then to verify their predictions.

17. Increase possibilities for success. Alternating difficult activities with easier ones allows your ESL students to experience early successes. For example, in natural science one activity might be to create a diary that Neil Armstrong might have kept on his trip to the moon; the next assignment might be to make a list of the personal items including food that he might have taken with him. Of course, the tasks as a whole should gradually become more academically challenging as the students become more proficient.

Teaching ESL in the Content Areas: Linguistic Adaptation of Materials for LEP Students from the National Origin Desegregation Office of Equal Educational Opportunity. New Jersey Department of Education.

LINGUISTIC ADAPTATION OF MATERIALS FOR LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT (LEP) STUDENTS USING SHELTERED ENGLISH

Teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) in the content areas.

Simplify the content by rewriting grammatical structures and words

Strategies:
1) Use simple sentences (avoid more than one clause).
2) Limit structures to one tense.
3) Introduce one concept per sentence.
4) Eliminate anything that is unnecessary.
5) Substitute simple common words for unfamiliar ones.
6) Convert passive voice sentences to the active voice.

I. Because second language learning is similar to first language learning, you should:

A. Expect errors and consider them as indicators of progress through stages of language acquisition;
B. Respond to the intended meanings children try to communicate;
C. Avoid repetitive drills and us repetition only as it occurs naturally in songs, poetry, games, stories, rhymes, etc.

II. Because social and affective factors, and differences in cognitive learning styles influence second language learning, teachers should:

A. Foster positive, caring attitudes among limited and native English speaking children;
B. Plan for small group and paired activities to lessen anxiety and promote cooperation among all children;
C. Vary methodology, materials, and types of evaluation to suit different learning styles;
D. If possible you should develop children's concepts and subject matter in their stronger language;
E. Initiate subject matter instruction in the second language in linguistically less demanding subjects, such as math.

III. To increase comprehension, use multisensory teaching techniques:

A. Increase "doing" or hands-on activities for students.
B. Use as many different kinds of media as are available to get a concept across (e.g., slides, films, overheads, visuals, manipulatives.)
C. Increase use of demonstrations.
D. Include both verbal and non-verbal activities in each lesson.
E. Provide oral and written (print) instructions for each day's assignment.
F. Encourage small group and paired projects so that peer modeling and instruction can be utilized. This will also lessen anxiety and promote cooperation among all children.

IV. Help students develop their English language skills:

A. Build an oral and written inventory of key vocabulary and language structures to be taught/used in a lesson - introduce these using:

1. Cassette tapes
2. Language master
3. Flash cards
4. Dictionary/pictionary
5. Manipulatives (essential tools, materials)

The following passages were adapted using Sheltered English:

Articles in Science and Social Studies were chosen as examples for adaptation because these two subjects are particularly difficult for (LEP) students.

Content Area: Social Studies - Taken from The World - Grade 6 by Brandwein and Bauer; Harcourt, Brace and Jovanovich, New York: 1980. p. 63.

A Strict Way of Life

Life in Sparta centered around the citizens, all of whom were men. Even for citizens, however, Spartan life was not always comfortable. A citizen was expected to spend most of his time serving the city of Sparta. He could decide very little about his education, his work, or his free time. The government of Sparta controlled most of his life.

Sheltered English

Among his other duties, each citizen had to serve as a soldier in the army. Although soldiers had high status, their lives were not easy. All soldiers belonged to military clubs, where they ate their meals and spent most of their time. They could not even got to their homes to see their wives and children very often.

Content Area: Science - Taken from Our Planet in Space - The Earth Sciences by Navarra and Strahler; Harper and Row, New York: 1973. p. 342.

Soil-Forming Processes

Soil itself forms a thick layer over the land surface of the earth. The earth's soil is a life-giving layer which supports all the forests, grass-land, and crops. The animal life of the earth derives its food indirectly from the soil. Without soil, the green plants of the earth, for the most part, could neither grow nor reproduce.

Too often soil is thought of as a lifeless layer which is composed simply of weathered rock and organic matter accumulated over the centuries. In reality, as the earth scientists know, the soil is an active, dynamic part of the lithosphere. Like other parts of the earth, the soil is capable of change and development. It, too, becomes involved in the exchange of energy and matter. The soil is a part of an energy system.

Sheltered English

Soil forms a thick layer over the land surface of the earth. It allows forests, grasses and crops to grow. Animals eat what grows in the soil. Green plants could not grow without soil.

We cannot see life in soil, but it is alive and always changing.

ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS

ERIC Digest

Sheltered English Instruction

Prepared by David Freeman and Yvonne Freeman *October 1988*

The number of limited-English-proficient (LEP) students in U.S. schools has increased dramatically in recent years. Waggoner (1984) estimates that by the year 2000, 3.4 million students in this country will speak a language other than English as their mother tongue. School districts are faced with the task of preparing these LEP students to keep up academically with their native-English-speaking peers. One way to help LEP students succeed academically is to recognize the need to develop their cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP)—the kind of proficiency required to make sense of academic language in context-reduced situations (Cummins, 1979, 1981). CALP can take up to seven years to acquire; even "advantaged" non-English-speakers require 5-8 years to score as well as native speakers on standardized tests (Collier, 1987). Accordingly, if teachers of English as a second language (ESL) focus solely on developing students' linguistic competence, the students may fall too far behind in academic subjects to ever catch up.

One type of instruction that offers promise in helping LEP students develop academic competence while also developing English proficiency is sheltered English.

What Is Sheltered English?

Sheltered English is an instructional approach used to make academic instruction in English understandable to LEP students. Students in these classes are "sheltered" in that they do not compete academically with native English speakers since the class includes only LEP students. In the regular classroom, English fluency is assumed. In contrast, in the sheltered English classroom, teachers use physical activities, visual aids, and the environment to teach important new words for concept development in mathematics, science, history, home economics, and other subjects (National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education, 1987).

The methods that teachers employ in sheltered classes include the following:

- Extralinguistic cues such as visuals, props, and body language (Parker, 1985);
- Linguistic modifications such as repetition and pauses during speech (Parker, 1985);
- Interactive lectures with frequent comprehension checks;
- Cooperative learning strategies (Kagan 1985);
- Focus on central concepts rather than on details by using a thematic approach;
- Development of reading strategies such as mapping and writing to develop thinking (Langer & Applebee, 1985).

Are There Different Types of Sheltered English Programs?

Sheltered English programs may be either bilingual or monolingual, but English instruction is the key element in both. One model described by Weinhouse (1986) defines sheltered English as "a program of instruction for language minority students consisting of three components: sheltered English instruction, primary language instruction, and mainstream English instruction" (p.4).

Krashen (1985) presents a detailed model for this type of sheltered English illustrated below.

Level	Mainstream	Sheltered	First Language
Beginning	Art, Music, PE	ESL	All Core Subjects
Intermediate	Art, Music, PE	ESL, Math, Science	Language Arts, Social Studies
Advanced	Art, Music, PE, Science, Math	Language Arts, Social Studies	Enrichment Program
Mainstream	All Subjects		Enrichment Program

In this model, students are mainstreamed initially in music, art, and physical education (PE)—the subjects least linguistically demanding. Students study English in a sheltered class and all core subjects in their first language. At the intermediate stage, math and science as well as English are taught in sheltered classes, while social studies and language arts are taught in the student's first language. At the advanced level, language arts and social studies are sheltered, and the student is mainstreamed for all other classes.

The goal of the program is to mainstream the student gradually, but since some instruction occurs in the primary language, bilingualism is also possible. However, in some school situations, especially at the

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secondary level, the primary instruction component is infeasible (unless the instructor has the benefit of native-speaking aides to assist LEP students with individual instruction) because either a variety of native languages are spoken by the students or the number of speakers of any given language is small.

Schifini (1985) acknowledges the desirability of programs with first language instruction and asks: "How does the American history teacher who has students who speak eleven different primary languages in his or her classroom make the class understandable at all?" (p.2). Schifini proposes a sheltered English program for students with intermediate English proficiency. At the first level of this two-level program, students study ESL and take sheltered math and science classes. At the second level, sheltered classes in social studies are added as students continue with ESL instruction.

Who Are the Instructors?

Typically, sheltered English classes are taught by regular classroom teachers who receive in-service instruction on ways to make subject-area content comprehensible for LEP students. However, ESL teachers may assume part of the responsibility for the curriculum and teach a class such as an ESL/social studies (or sheltered social studies) class.

How Is Sheltered English Different from Other Approaches To Teaching LEP Students?

As Weinhouse (1986) suggests, sheltered English programs can contain key elements of three other approaches to teaching limited-English-proficient students: bilingual education, immersion, and content-based instruction.

- **Bilingual Education.** Bilingual programs have been effective in developing both English proficiency and academic competence by instruction in the primary language as well as in English. Where appropriate and feasible, sheltered English programs also include first language instruction.
- **Immersion Education.** Immersion programs teach a second language by providing sheltered instruction in content areas to students with limited language proficiency. In foreign language immersion programs, English-speaking students receive sheltered instruction in languages such as French, Spanish, or German. (In sheltered English programs, the sheltered instruction is in English.)
- **Content-based Instruction.** A number of programs, including sheltered English, have been designed with the aim of teaching English through the content areas.

Conclusion

Sheltered English instruction includes a variety of techniques to help regular classroom teachers make content-area material comprehensible for ESL students who already have some English proficiency. The programs may include a primary language instruction component. Sheltered English programs have proven successful in the development of academic competence in LEP students because such programs concentrate on the simultaneous development of content-area and ESL proficiency.

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HELPING THE NONNATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKER WITH READING IN THE CONTENT AREAS

Children in the elementary grades can encounter difficulties in reading for reason as varied as the children themselves. Those whose native language is not English often have problems when reading in English. This is no surprise; yet the response to those reading difficulties frequently is to overlook the obvious and to place the students in remediation classes designed for native English speakers, whose reading problems usually have different causes.

It may take as long as five to seven years for limited English speaking students to gain the command of English needed for them to perform successfully in academic areas (Collier, 1987; Cummins, 1984). The barriers to their effective communication and comprehension, particularly in tasks involving reading and writing, are sometimes hidden by their relatively quicker acquisition of conversational language and mastery of decoding skills in reading. Thus students who appear to have command of English may in fact be struggling to communicate and find meaning when faced with academic settings and tasks that are decontextualized and cognitively demanding (Chamot and O'Malley, 1986).

As students reach the upper elementary grades, the cognitive and linguistic demands they face in reading become increasingly challenging. Teachers can help their limited English proficient (LEP) students deal with these complex demands make greater sense of what they read in several ways.

Four crucial areas

It is helpful to think of reading as a multifaceted developmental process in which the successful student learns to make those connections that link language, print, and thought (Smith, 1982; Thonis,1981). Here, the term "thought" includes the student's conceptual framework which has been shaped by experience, education, and culture. In order to comprehend messages encoded in print, the reader must bring to the text not only the decoding skills required to "crack" the code, but also the language facility, conceptual framework, and thinking abilities needed to understand the message.

Thus, the effective teacher addresses all four areas important to reading comprehension-decoding skills, language development/competence, concept/context building, and critical thinking skills/strategies.

Word recognition

For second language learners, oral language acquisition comes through the use of language in context (Krashen, 1981; Krashen and Terrell, 1983). Focusing on contextualized language is important in reading development as well (Hudelson, 1984; Krashen, 1981; Thonis, 1981). Students in even the early stages of acquiring English can identify and understand many forms of environmental print (e.g., men/women, Burger King, EXIT). The teacher can build upon the students' ability to recognize words in context by integrating print into the classroom environment.

- Label items, locations, and activities in the room, on bulletin boards, and on display tables.

- Write directions, schedules, calendar information, names, and work duties on the board and refer to them as the information is discussed orally.

- Use language experience activities to describe events in the classroom. These can be the basis for developing sentence strips and students' books (Feeley, 1983).

- Include simple reading/writing activities for beginning level students as reinforcement for language practiced orally. Include copying of language experience information, penmanship, dictation, labeling, vocabulary matching activities, word puzzles, and following simple directions.

- Write down familiar dialogues and stories; have students practice reading them as creative dramatics, choral reading, role plays, and interviews.

- Have students identify words they would like to know in print. This key word approach to the development of sight word vocabulary has been quite effective with LEP learners (Hudelson, 1984).

- Provide students with a place to keep important words (e.g., a notebook or word cards). The students can use a combination of cues to remember meaning, such as English words plus a picture for definition and English words and native language definition or equivalent.

A discussion on word recognition instruction requires a word about phonics in developing reading competence. Certainly students need to be aware of the grapheme/phoneme connection that ties reading text to oral language and is at the heart of a phonics approach to reading instruction. However, there are some cautions that should be observed when the students are not native English speakers.

- English is not a phonetically consistent language, particularly with respect to vowels. In the words women and fish, for example, the sounds represented by the first vowel of the word are identical. English is replete with examples of phonetic irregularities that can confuse the LEP student.

- It is sometimes difficult for LEP students to differentiate sound variations in English, especially if such distinctions do not exist in the native language. It is more difficult still for the student to produce such sound differences in the early stages of language acquisition.

- Phonics drills, like any language drill, may focus on such a narrow aspect of the language process that the total message gets lost. Phonics instruction integrated with other approaches can help students decode print in context.

Language competence

In the process of acquiring a second language, children develop competence by using the language for real communication (Dulay, Burt, and Krashen, 1982). Exposure to whole language activities that integrate listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and involve students in interactive communication and experiential learning promote purposeful language use that leads to language acquisition.

With respect to reading, there are several things the teacher can do to produce a rich language environment in the classroom.

- Incorporate the Language Experience Approach (LEA) in reading and writing instruction. LEA draws upon both the knowledge and language base of the students and integrates print activities naturally into language development. (For a more detailed description of the use of language experience activities with LEP students, see Coady, 1981; Feeley, 1979, 1983; Moustafa and Penrose, 1985.)

- Expose students to a wide variety of materials written in different styles. Include quality works in their entirety. Read aloud to students often so that they experience the flow of the oral language as well. Select well illustrated texts on topics that are familiar and interesting to the students.

- Incorporate creative dramatics, role playing, and dialogues based on scripts that are orally familiar. Such activities provide a ready bridge between oral and print forms of the language.

- Use reading for enjoyment. Include lyrics to familiar music, poetry, riddles, jokes, group poems, choral readings, plays, call and response chants (such as Jazz Chants for Children by Carolyn Graham, Oxford University Press, New York, NY: 1979).

- Provide experiences in which language is greatly contextualized (for example, a field trip, a science experiment, role playing, planning a class party, solving a puzzle). Use printed materials with these activities as an extension of the language used during this activity: Write a class language experience report about the field trip; record information on a science chart; write dialogues or captions for a set of pictures; make lists of party items needed; follow written directions to find a hidden treasure.

- Introduce interactive writing experiences such as pen pal letters or teacher/student dialogue journals to create text that is both interesting and motivating for the participants. Dialogue journals have been especially useful as sources of comprehensible language input and interesting reading materials for students (Peyton, 1986; Shuy, 1985; Staton, 1985).

- Provide reading materials that are well organized, clearly written, and contain illustrations, charts, and diagrams that are easily understood and supportive of the text. The student then can draw upon multiple cues for meaning.

Expanding conceptual framework

Many of us might find reading a textbook on astrophysics or working through the legal language of a contract to be difficult because of the style of writing, the specialized vocabulary, or the unfamiliar concepts presented. Likewise, we might miss the significance of a treatise on Taoism or a reference to the striking of a Hmong man by his prospective mother-in-law because the underlying cultural values and assumptions are foreign to us.

Any reader can have trouble comprehending a reading selection that is outside the realm of his or her experience and knowledge. For the limited English proficient student who is often learning a new culture, a new view of how individuals behave, and a new language and academic content, the chances for miscommunication and lack of understanding multiply.

Any reading task runs the risk of being outside the realm of the reader's experience and knowledge framework unless care is taken to select materials that relate to the student's background and to help the student understand selections that contain unfamiliar vocabulary, information, or underlying cultural assumptions and values.

Research indicates that readers are better able to understand and remember print selections that reflect their cultural background (Andersson and Barnitz, 1984). Providing LEP students with reading materials that are culturally familiar should aid comprehension because the conceptual schemata needed to make sense of such selections are more likely to be in place. Plan to include in your reading program the following types of materials:

- Folktales and stories from students' native cultures;
- Materials with familiar experiences, characters, and settings (e.g., selections about the student's country, climate, geography, pastimes, health care, recipes, and holidays);
- Familiar values expressed in stories, folklore, maxims, and historical tales;
- Selections containing familiar lexical items such as food, shelter, clothing, tools, transportation, recreation, and other activities from the native culture (items should be presented in context with good illustrations and clearly written text);
- Language experience materials that students have produced individually or in groups to describe events and ideas that are important to them. These materials may be about either the native culture or the new one the student is absorbing.

When an LEP student faces a reading selection that is culturally unfamiliar, the teacher can help the student develop a framework for comprehending the text through a variety of prereading and reading activities and strategies.

- Introduce unfamiliar vocabulary (in addition to words identified by the text developers). For example, many LEP students may lack a repertoire of multiple meanings for English words. Thus, use of the word table in a science text might be confusing. Similarly, a student who has not yet acquired the irregular past tense forms of verbs may not realize that sit and sat are related.
- Conduct prereading discussions of concepts important to understanding a selection. Present examples that could help students make the connection between new concepts and ideas they already understand. For example, students might talk about their experience of moving to a new country before reading a social studies lesson on American pioneer life.

- Provide group assignments, allowing students to work with others to process text, discuss ideas, and complete a task that might be overwhelming if done alone. Each student might be asked to read one section of material and write one or two sentences about it; the contributions of all can be combined into a longer report.

- Monitor student comprehension through use of questioning and having students talk about what they have read in their own words. For beginners the teacher may have to supply much of the language while the student responds nonverbally or with short answers.

Introducing strategies

Good readers use many strategies and techniques to help themselves understand print texts of various types. LEP students can make use of these same tools if shown what they are and provided with ample opportunities to practice them.

- Help students establish a purpose for reading to direct their attention.

- Familiarize students with the layout and language of different types of reading materials (e.g., story books, science texts, dramas, magazine articles, charts, diagrams, illustrations, glossaries, summaries, bold type, and other text cues as tools for understanding reading selections).

- Incorporate learning strategies such as imaging, notetaking, integrating new information into existing knowledge framework, making word/idea associations, predicting, confirming, and questioning (Chamot and O'Malley, 1986).

- Demonstrate different kinds of reading techniques to be used in different reading situations such as scanning, skimming, reading for main idea, reading for details, and rereading to confirm or clarify.

- Introduce summarizing, self monitoring, recalling events in chronological order, retelling in one's own words, outlining, and the use of graphic organizers as pre- and postreading text management techniques.

- Provide "real" reading selections used in their appropriate contexts. LEP students frequently are placed in remedial reading classes and receive instruction designed for native English speaking remedial readers whose needs may differ significantly from theirs. Focusing on isolated word attack skills, overuse of phonics drills, or disjointed exercises may impede the integrative processes that link language, print, and thinking.

- Foster the higher level thinking skills used by good readers:
  - Introduce problem solving with selections that contain relatively simple language but which require students to process print in thoughtful ways. Example: Kim is taller than Mai but shorter than Lan. Write the names of the girls in order of height.
  - Pose questions that invite students to analyze, make comparisons, predict, and draw conclusions, such as "Why did thus-and-so happen? How are x and y different? What do you think will happen next?"
  - Increase the teacher wait time after questions to allow students time to process language and to think and reflect about what they have read.
  - Have students create their own problem solving tasks such as math word problems, word puzzles, riddles, and analogies.

By attending to the decoding skills, language development, concept expansion, and thinking processes that are all critical to reading, the teacher can help the student whose English is limited become truly proficient.

Teaching ESL in the Content Areas: Linguistic Adaptation of Materials for LEP Students from the National Origin Desegregation Office of Equal Educational Opportunity. New Jersey Department of Education.

CULTURAL AWARENESS

Background Information

Semantic maps are diagrams which help students see how words are related to each other. The procedure activates and builds on students's prior knowledge and generally involves brainstorming and discussion of how new information links to this prior knowledge. The maps can be used for vocabulary and comprehension development, and as a prereading or postreading activity.

Semantic mapping is not a new instructional strategy; for a number of years it has been known as "semantic webbing", "plot mapping" and "semantic networking". An early reference on semantic mapping per se was a 1971 Journal of Reading article by M.B. Hanf entitled "Mapping: A technique for translating reading into thinking". However, leading proponents who helped popularize this approach were Dale Johnson and P. David Pearson who described and discussed semantic mapping in their 1978 books Teaching Reading Vocabulary (updated in 1984) and Teaching Reading Comprehension. A number of research studies have validated the effectiveness of semantic mapping, contributing to the increased support of this as an effective instructional strategy.

Introduction

While there a number of variations to semantic mapping, the general steps involved are:

1. Write the chosen vocabulary word or story topic on the blackboard. Draw a box or circle around that word/term.

2. Encourage students to think of as many words or ideas as they can relate to the selected word or topic.

3. Students may:
   - write their ideas on paper and then share those ideas in group discussion
   - brainstorm by sharing in a small group or participate in large group discussion; or
   - orally share ideas together to generate a class semantic map.

4. Student's ideas are listed on the semantic map in categories which organize the words in a reasonable and related manner. These details or related words/ideas are written around the main word/topic.

5. Discussion of the semantic map is perhaps the most important part of the activity. Students see how words/ideas are related, learn new words and find new meanings for words they already know. During discussion the teacher will focus on the ideas most appropriate to the lesson being taught, add new related ideas to the map, and help students to identify those ideas which do not appropriately fit the map.

BECOMING CULTURALLY AWARE

Having students in our classes who represent a different culture from our own presents a challenge and an opportunity for growth. Becoming culturally aware means broadening our perspective and learning about our students' lives and where they come from. It also means honoring their language and culture, and celebrating the diversity they represent within this nation of immigrants.

> If you wish to know more about your students and the culture they represent, ask them.

> Whenever possible, include information and prepare lessons about your migrant students' country and its culture.

> If they speak little English, learn some Spanish to welcome them and to make them feel comfortable. (Haitians speak Creole.)

> Take some time to visit the library and find out about the country your students come from, the foods they eat, the holidays they celebrate, the language they speak, etc.

Teaching migrant students can be a very enriching experience for you and for the rest of your class. The potential for broadening cross-cultural understanding is great. Respecting and learning about others and the cultures they represent helps us all to grow.

In this section, you will find some cultural information about Mexican-Americans and Haitians which you may find helpful.

THE MEXICAN-AMERICANS

CULTURAL FACTORS

FAMILY COMPOSITION AND ORGANIZATION

Within the Mexican culture, the family is the most valued institution and is the main focus of social identification. Nuclear families are commonly found among Mexican-Americans, but there still exist many extended families which extend to over three generations. Traditional females display subdued qualities, while males have been the authority figure in the family. Each person in the family has the potential for increasing community respect for the family by their personal behavior.

EDUCATION

Most Mexican-Americans appreciate and value the American educational system. Traditional Mexican-American students have been taught to respect older members of their community, teachers and employers. Many students experience our educational system with little or no difficulties. At the same time, there are Mexican-American students that have difficulties due to cultural differences and/or lack of English proficiency skills. Some students are unable to fully benefit from the educational system because of economic conditions that force them to be employed to maintain themselves. Also, the rate of mobility between the U.S. and Mexico affects the education of the students.

WORK ETHIC

In the Mexican-American culture there is a strong loyalty and solidarity in the family unit. This family loyalty often is transferred to the work setting. This loyalty translates into work behaviors such as willingness to do additional tasks without being asked, working additional hours, or providing moral support to their supervisor and/or co-workers; therefore, Mexican-Americans become valued employees. In the educational setting, Mexican-American students work particularly well in groups. Another common characteristic relative to the work ethic is that parents encourage their teenage children to find employment. Many parents view it as an opportunity to understand the world of work and the value of earning money. In some families, the children's earnings are necessary in order to feed and clothe the family members.

LANGUAGE

In the home of the Mexican-Americans the principal language is usually Spanish. On occasion, the family members communicate using an Indian dialect, although they generally speak Spanish as well. This is worth noting because many Mexican-American children come to school in the U.S. with at least an oral knowledge of one or even two languages. In the migrant community the parents, as a rule, know little or no English. They often rely on their children who have been to school here to translate for them and to help them make purchases. At home, the children speak varying amounts of Spanish and English. Generally speaking, the children who have lived in the U.S. the longest are the ones who use the most English, although their Spanish remains essential in order to converse with their parents and older relatives. The parents of the Mexican-American children are often illiterate in Spanish which means that the children do not usually have much exposure to the process of reading and writing except in the school setting.

(FROM: Michigan's Model for Delivering Vocational Education to Secondary Limited English Proficient and Minority Language Students, 1985)

THE HAITIANS

Many adult Haitians who are migrant laborers came to this country as "boat people" in the early 1980's. Often they were attempting to escape the political and economic hardships of their native country. It is likely that your Haitian students were born in this country, but that their parents may have "another family" (spouse and children) in Haiti. Siblings often have different surnames and may refer to brothers and sisters still living in Haiti.

SOCIAL VALUES IN HAITI

Haiti, predominantly a nation of blacks, is a stratified society. The family is the nucleus of Haitian society. The patriarchal system is very prevalent, even though many women raise children without the consistent presence of the father. By tradition, the father is the breadwinner and authority figure. The mother is the household manager and disciplinarian.

Parents do not consider themselves "buddies" or friends to their children. The parental role is authoritarian, but not always consistent. Parents rarely joke with their children and seldom talk to them except to give directions or to correct them. Children are not allowed direct eye contact with adults when they are being scolded. Therefore a Haitian student may not look directly at you when being disciplined.

From birth, males are granted more freedom and deference from adult members of the family. The male "macho" image is admired since men are perceived as playing the dominant role in society. Physical aggressiveness, especially among boys, is common, and may not be punished at home. Often, an extra measure of patience is required when disciplining Haitian children.

LANGUAGE

Although French is the official language of Haiti, it is primarily the language of the upper class. Most Haitians speak Creole, which is a mixture of French vocabulary with the addition of African, Spanish and Indian words. Until recently, all books in school were in French; few Haitians (only one in ten can read and write) have literacy skills in any language. Haitian children in America often speak better English than their parents and appear to be fluent, when in reality their English is quite limited and Creole is still spoken in the home.

(FROM: A Handbook for Teachers of Haitian Students in New Jersey, 1984, by the New Jersey Department of Education, Trenton, NJ 08625)

SPANISH - ESPAÑOL

Common Expressions

HOLA Hello
BUENOS DÍAS Good Morning
¿CÓMO ESTÁS? How are you?
ME LLAMO My name is
¿CÓMO TE LLAMAS? What's your name?
¿DÓNDE ESTÁ? Where is?
¿COMPRENDES? Do you understand?
POR FAVOR Please
MUCHAS GRACIAS Many thanks
BIEN good, fine
¡MUY BIEN! Very good!
ADIÓS Goodbye
HASTA MAÑANA See you tomorrow
SÍ, COMPRENDO Yes, I understand
NO, NO COMPRENDO No, I don't understand

Classroom Expressions

EL MAESTRO, LA MAESTRA teacher
EL PAPEL paper
LA PLUMA pen
EL LÁPIZ pencil
LA SILLA chair
LA MESA table
EL BAÑO bathroom
LA VENTANA window
LAS TIJERAS scissors
LA PIZARRA chalkboard
LA TIZA chalk
EL TELÉFONO telephone
EL AGUA water
LA PUERTA door
EL AUTOBUS bus
LA BANDERA flag

Commands

ESCUCHA Listen
MIRA Look
DAME Give me
LEVÁNTATE Get up
VAMOS AFUERA Let's go outside
SIÉNTATE Sit down
CÁLLATE Be quiet
QUITA Stop, quit it

ES LA HORA DE (It's time)

COMER (to eat)
DORMIR (to sleep)
JUGAR (to play)
TRABAJAR (to work)
LEER (to read)
HABLAR (to speak)
ESCRIBIR (to write)
DIBUJAR (to draw)

Colors

ROJO red
VERDE green
AMARILLO yellow
ANARANJADO orange
NEGRO black
BLANCA white
CAFÉ brown
AZUL blue

Numbers

1 - UNO
2 - DOS
3 - TRES
4 - CUATRO
5 - CINCO
6 - SEIS
7 - SIETE
8 - OCHO
9 - NUEVE
10 - DIEZ
11 - ONCE
12 - DOCE
13 - TRECE
14 - CATORCE
15 - QUINCE

Days of the Week

LUNES - Monday
MARTES - Tuesday
MIÉRCOLES - Wednesday
JUEVES - Thursday
VIERNES - Friday
SÁBADO - Saturday
DOMINGO - Sunday

Months

ENERO - January
FEBRERO - February
MARZO - March
ABRIL - April
MAYO - May
JUNIO - June
JULIO - July
AGOSTO - August
SEPTIEMBRE - September
OCTUBRE - October
NOVIEMBRE - November
DICIEMBRE - December

ADDITIONAL PHRASES

1.	¿CUÁNTOS ANOS TIENE USTED?	How old are you?
2.	¿TIENE USTED UN SOBRENOMBRE?	Do you have a nickname?
3.	HABLE MÁS DESPACIO, POR FAVOR.	Speak slower, please.
4.	TRAÍGAME EL/LA _____.	Bring me the _____.
5.	PONGA EL/LA _____ AQUÍ.	Put the _____ here.
6.	DÍGAME SU NOMBRE.	Tell me your name.
7.	ESCRIBA SU NOMBRE.	Write your name.
8.	EÑSÉÑEME EL/LA SU _____.	Show me the/your _____.
9.	DIBJUE UNA LINEA DEBAJO DE _____.	Draw a line under _____.
10.	PONGO UN CÍRCULO ALREDEDOR DE _____.	Put a circle around the _____.
11.	ESTE/ESTA ES SU _____.	This is your _____.
12.	ESTE/ESTA ES UN _____.	This is a _____.
13.	DIGA _____, POR FAVOR.	Say _____, please.
14.	REPITA, POR FAVOR.	Repeat, please.
15.	LEVANTE LA MANO SI TIENE UNA PREGUNTA.	Raise your hand if you have a question.
16.	¿QUÉ ES ESTO?	What do you call this?
17.	LA PALABRA EN INGLÉS PARA ESTO ES _____.	The English word for this is _____.
18.	LA ESCUELA EMPIEZA A LAS _____ Y TERMINA A LAS _____.	School starts at _____ and ends at _____.
19.	AHORA ES EL TIEMPO DE RECREO.	It is recess now.
20.	ESTA ES SU SILLA.	This is your chair.
21.	ESTE ES SU LIBRO.	This your book.
22.	ESTE ES SU LÁPIZ.	This is your pencil.
23.	ESTE ES EL BAÑO PARA LOS MUCHACHOS.	This is the boys' restroom.
24.	ESTE ES EL BAÑO PARA LAS MUCHACHAS.	This is the girls' restroom.
25.	ESTE/ESTA ES SU MAESTRO/MAESTRA.	This is the school office.
26.	ESTE ES EL CAMPO DE RECREO.	This is the playground.
27.	ESTA ES AL CAFETERÍA.	This is the cafeteria.
28.	ESTE ES EL CAMIÓN QUE LE LLEVARÁ A SU CASA.	This is the bus you will ride to your home.
29.	ESTA ES LA BIBLIOTECA.	This is the library.
30.	LEVÁNTESE.	Stand up.
31.	SIÉNTESE.	Sit down.
32.	COLOREAR.	To color.
33.	CORTAR.	To cut.

CULTURAL CONSIDERATIONS IN THE CLASSROOM

1. MAKE FREQUENT USE OF CULTURAL INFORMATION IN THE CLASSROOM.

2. ANTICIPATE AREAS OF CULTURAL CONFLICT.
   - NAMING PRACTICES
   - AGE DETERMINATION
   - ROLE OF THE FAMILY
   - GENDER ROLES, INTERACTION OF BOYS AND GIRLS

3. FIND OUT ABOUT THE STUDENTS' SCHOOL BACKGROUNDS.
   - MANDATORY EDUCATION
   - SCHOOL MATERIALS
   - ELECTIVE COURSES
   - NOISE LEVEL
   - SPECIAL SCHOOL STAFF (I.E., NURSES, COUNSELORS)

4. CLARIFY THE STUDENT AND TEACHER ROLES.
   - AUTHORITY
   - OWNERSHIP
   - STUDY STRATEGIES
   - TEST-TAKING SKILLS

5. RECOGNIZE VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL CULTURAL BEHAVIOR.
   - NATURE OF LANGUAGE
   - EYES
   - TOUCH
   - TIME

6. UNDERSTAND STUDENTS' INTERACTION PREFERENCES.
   - VERBAL
   - COOPERATIVE

7. ACCOMMODATE DIFFERENT COGNITIVE STYLES.

from: Effective Practices for Bilingual/ESL Teachers, 1985. Published by the New Jersey

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

The issue of parent involvement is an important one. The parents of migrant children are often difficult to contact because they live some distance from the central community and/or they speak little English. We should encourage parents, as much as possible, to become involved with the schools.

Mexican-Americans and Haitians, for a variety of cultural reasons, do not expect to participate in the formal education of their children. They feel that this is the responsibility of the schools. This does not mean that we shouldn't attempt to inform and educate parents about how to take a more active role in their children's education. Once they try it, they usually like it!

HOW TO INCLUDE THE PARENTS OF MIGRANT CHILDREN? OUTREACH

> Contact your local migrant director and/or migrant tutor (list provided in this kit) who may be of help in a variety of ways.

> Find out the phone number at which the family may be reached and ask if the parents speak English. If they do not, there is probably an older brother or sister who does.

> Send all written information home with your migrant child and, if possible, translate important information into the parents' native language. Try asking for help from a local language teacher, a bilingual student at your school, or a bilingual community member.

> Meeting with migrant parents takes some planning. You can arrange a meeting either where they live or at school through personal contact or with help from your local migrant program. Try to arrange meetings at times when they are available--this will require some flexibility on your part.

> Involve migrant parents in all home learning activities you have planned for your class. It is especially advisable to instruct your students to read to them, be it in English or Spanish. Even parents who cannot read often enjoy this way of sharing time with their children and participating in their learning.

> Invite migrant parents to class as visitors. They would love to help you with a cultural activity such as celebrating one of their favorite holidays.

ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS

ERIC Digest

Parent Involvement and The Education of Limited-English-Proficient Students

December, 1986

Over the last two decades, there has been a growing body of research evidence suggesting that there are important benefits to be gained by elementary-age schoolchildren when their parents provide support, encouragement and direct instruction in the home, as well as maintain good communications with the school--activities which are known as "parent involvement". Such findings have led researchers and school personnel to apply parent involvement techniques at higher grade levels and with limited-English-proficient and non-English-proficient (LEP/NEP) students as well. The results to date have been encouraging.

What Activities Constitute Parent Involvement?

In general, parents may become involved by:

- providing a home environment that supports children's learning needs;
- volunteering to provide assistance in the school as teachers' aides, secretaries, or in other roles;
- becoming activists and decision-makers in organizations such as the local PTA/PTO, or community advocacy groups that advise local school boards and school districts;
- attending school-sponsored activities;
- maintaining open channels of communication with the teacher(s) and continually monitoring children's progress in school;
- tutoring the children at home, using specific learning activities designed by the teacher to reinforce work being done in school (Epstein, 1986).

While most of the activities listed above are undertaken on the initiative of parents, the last activity--parent-as-tutor involvement--is, or should be, initiated by the teacher. Schools with newly-established parent involvement programs have noted that parents are willing to become involved, but that they do not know *how* to help their children with academic tasks at home, and in general, are fearful of doing more harm than good. To counteract this, the teacher must maintain contact with the parents, giving specific assistance with materials and tutoring techniques that will successfully reinforce the work being done in school (Simich, 1986; Epstein, 1985a).

Parent involvement in the education of high school students, on the other hand, requires that the parent become co-learner, facilitator and collaborator, a means of support as the high school-age student develops independence and explores future educational options.

What Are Some Special Aspects of LEP/NEP Parent Involvement?

For the growing numbers of limited- or non-English-proficient parents, parent involvement of any kind in the school process is a new cultural concept. Moreover, attempts by teachers and school officials to involve such parents in the education of their children is very often interpreted as a call for interference. The overwhelming majority of LEP/NEP parents believe that the school has not only the qualifications, but the responsibility to educate their children, and that any amount of parent "interference" is certain to be counter-productive. The most imporant task, then, in involving LEP/NEP parents in their children's education is to acculturate them to the meaning of parent involvement in their new social environment.

While most LEP/NEP parents do not have the English language proficiency to engage in many of the typical parent involvement activities, they may be very successfully involved in parent-school collaboration at home. These parents can be taught to reinforce educational concepts in the native language and/or English. Additionally, bilingual community liaisons should be available to bridge language and cultural differences between home and school. An added advantage, of course, is that LEP/NEP parents improve their own general knowledge, language and survival skills as a result of their participation in the program.

What Evidence Is There to Support The Need for Parent Involvement?

Epstein (1985b) has concluded, "the evidence is clear that parental encouragement, activities and interest at home, and parental participation in schools and classrooms positively influence achievement, even after the students' ability and family socioeconomic status are taken into account." Moreover, there may be evidence to support the conclusion that the most useful variety of parent involvment is the contact that parents have with their children in the home when such contact is used to encourage and aid school achievement. Significant findings from several parent involvement programs show that:

- Parent involvement in academic activities with children at home consistently and significantly improves parents' knowledge and expertise in helping their children, as well as their ability to effectively evaluate teachers' merits (Bennett, 1986);

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- Direct parental involvement at home with children's school work has positive effects on such things as school attendance, classroom behavior, and parent-teacher relations (Gillum, 1977; Rich et al., 1979; Comer, 1980);
- Students who are part of parent involvement programs show higher reading achievement than children who are not. Hewison and Tizard (1980) found that "children encouraged to read to their parents, and to talk with their parents about their reading, had markedly higher reading gains than children who did not have this opportunity." Moreover, small group instruction during the school day by highly competent specialists *did not produce* gains comparable to those obtained in parental involvement programs. Results of a longitudinal study of 300 3rd and 5th grade students in Baltimore City show that from fall to spring, students whose teachers were leaders in the use of parent involvement made greater gains in reading achievement than did students whose teachers were not recognized for encouraging parent involvement (Epstein, 1985b).

Do These Findings Apply to LEP/NEP Students?

In the study conducted by Hewison and Tizard mentioned above, several of the participating parents were non-English-proficient and/or illiterate, a condition that neither prevented the parents from collaborating with the school, nor the children from showing marked improvement in reading ability.

A more recent study, the three-year Trinity-Arlington Teacher and Parent Training for School Success Project, has shown the most comprehensive findings to date concerning parent involvement and limited-English proficiency. This project, the result of a collaboration between Trinity College in Washington, DC and the Arlington, VA Public Schools, was designed to facilitate the acquisition of English language skills by high school LEP students from four language backgrounds (Khmer, Lao, Spanish and Vietnamese) through the development of supportive relationships among the students, parents and school staff. The role of the parent-as-tutor was stressed and facilitated by community liaisons proficient in the native language of the parents. Parents were shown how to collaborate, to be co-learners with their high school-age children in the completion of specially-designed home lessons from the Vocationally-Oriented Bilingual Curriculum (VOBC), a supplement to the ESL program which was in use at the implementation site.

Several locally-developed and nationally-validated measures of English proficiency were administered to the students. Additionally, both parents and students were administered a content test to provide evidence of cultural knowledge gained as a result of the VOBC information exchanged between parent and student. The study showed positively that the VOBC home lessons reinforced ESL concepts and language skills taught to students during regular ESL classroom instruction. Significant gains were also recorded in the English language and survival skills of the parents; and, as a result of their collaboration on the VOBC home lessons, parents and students alike learned a great deal about life in America and about the American school system.

In many LEP/NEP households, parents worked two or three jobs and were often not available to work with their children on the VOBC home lessons. Likewise, many students were unaccompanied minors and/or heads of household, and did not have the luxury of parental involvement. Such cases highlighted another very important finding: in households where parents were not available to work with their children, interaction with guardians and siblings over the VOBC home lessons often provided the same positive reinforcement as when parents participated, possible evidence that home activities could be even more productive if the whole family were to be involved in their completion (Simich, 1986).

How Can School Districts Initiate An LEP/NEP Parent Involvement Program?

To develop a parent-as-tutor, collaborator or co-learner program, the collaboration of all school personnel is essential. Regular classroom teachers, ESL teachers, counselors, and administrators should receive training in how to develop better home and school collaboration with LEP/NEP parents and how to involve them in the education of their children. An essential component of the parent involvement effort is the bilingual community liaison, a highly respected member of the parents' language community who is knowledgeable about the American school system.

Information on the VOBC, Teacher's Guide to the VOBC, a training videotape to supplement the VOBC and other materials developed by the Trinity-Arlington Project may be obtained by writing the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 11501 Georgia Avenue, Wheaton, MD 20907; (301)933-9448 or (800)647-0123.

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SAMPLE INFORMATIONAL MEETING PLANS

GOAL 1: To orient the parents to the American school system. Parents will become aware of some of the major differences between schools in their native land and the U.S. system. Special emphasis will be on the importance of the role of parent involvement in American schools.

	OBJECTIVE	ACTIVITIES	MATERIALS/RESOURCES
1.	Inform parents about activities in a regular school day	Show parents a slide presentation of several classes participating in a variety of school activities. Discuss the objectives of these activities.	Slide presentations, samples of student work
2.	Familiarize parents with the similarities and differences between schools in the U.S. and their native countries.	Discuss the differences in structure of program, focus of activities and increased role of parent interacting with school staff.	Comparative chart
3.	Orient parents to the idea of close interaction with school staff.	Inform parents of their role in education and how increased interaction with the school helps to develop better programs.	Parent handbook, report cards, student folders

GOAL 2: To encourage parents to reinforce and extend children's native language skills through activities in the home. Parents will become acquainted with the importance of developing strong native language skills and learn how to provide experiences which promote the development of these skills in the home.

	OBJECTIVE	ACTIVITIES	MATERIALS/RESOURCES
1.	Inform parents of the importance of developing strong native language skills.	Invite parents to a meeting at which discussion will focus on benefits of strong native language skill development, both through demonstration lesson of skill transfer and through discussion.	Manipulatives needed for language lesson, tape recorder, fact sheet
2.	Identify for parents some games, songs, and play activities that are appropriate for children to promote skills development.	Invite parents to an open house. Parents will be able to preview books and records and try out equipment which can be borrowed and used in the home for further native language skill development.	Song sheets, games, books, toys, and other manipulatives that can be used in the home
3.	Teach parents how to apply basic principles of learning discussed for home activities such as story-reading/telling.	Present a demonstration of simple activities and story-telling techniques, that employ basic principles that parents can follow in the home.	School library books, pictures, magazines, children's drawings.

From: Parent Involvement: A Resource for the Education of Limited English Proficient Students:

HOME-SCHOOL RELATIONSHIPS

HAVE YOU EVER THOUGHT ABOUT...

...what parents and teachers have in common?

...your degree of involvement in school activities?

...how you could improve your relationship with the school?

SOME IDEAS

1. Parents today have the potential for becoming more involved in the school than ever before.

2. Both the home and school are responsible for a child's education.

3. Parent-teacher cooperation increases a child's chances for success in school.

4. The bond between home and school is strengthened when parents and teachers can communicate.

5. By sharing information, parents and teachers can better meet a child's needs.

6. To work together effectively, parents and teachers need to respect and accept each other.

TRY THESE

LIST

1. Make your own Home Report Card to send to the teacher. For example, you might list your child's work habits, hobbies, problems, duties at home, and anything else you feel might be helpful to the teacher.

2. Have your child keep an attendance record of your participation at school activities.

3. Prepare a list of questions for the next conference with your child's teacher. Ask for specific ways to help your child at home.

4. Volunteer your services as a translator for other parents, who, because of a language barrier, cannot communicate with school staff.

5. Make arrangements with you child's teacher to share your photo albums, family customs, favorite recipes, etc... with your child's classroom.

6. Make a list of activities you might do with your child. Talk to your child's teacher about them.

7. Make your own Parent Involvement Report Card. Give yourself a grade for each month.

LOOKING AHEAD

PARENTS HAVE MUCH TO OFFER.

Get to know your child's school.
Find out what your can do to get involved.

PARENTS AND TEACHERS CAN BE PARTNERS IN EDUCATING CHILDREN.

IDEAS FOR BUILDING POSITIVE HOME-SCHOOL RELATIONSHIPS

The more interest you express in your child's school and in his learning, the greater his/her chances for success in school. Following are some suggestions on what you can do to improve HOME-SCHOOL RELATIONSHIPS.

IF YOU WORK DURING THE DAY:

Plan a specific time each evening, even if it is only a few minutes, to discuss with your child what he did in school on that day, whether he/she has homework, whether any notes were sent home that day, etc.

Help your child set up a time and place for doing his/her homework (if possible, in an area you will be available to assist).

Display your child's work (tape it on the refrigerator for a few days or find another convenient place). Put up a school calendar if there is one.

Attend evening meetings at school whenever possible (PTA, conferences).

Send notes to your child's teacher, or use the telephone while you are at work, to discuss any problems or questions you have about your child's education.

Donate materials whenever you can for class projects and school activities. Send them to school with your child.

If possible, take some time off from work once in a while to attend a school function in which your child is involved.

Parent-teacher conferences in most schools can be scheduled at night. Insist on your right to a conference if you are assigned an inconvenient time.

Try to be consistent about your child's bedtime and nutrition habits. Stress the importance of getting enough sleep.

IF YOU ARE AT HOME ALL DAY:

Try any of the suggestions already given, plus the following:

Provide transportation for school fieldtrip if you can or go along to help.

Visit your child's classroom whenever possible.

Volunteer to help in your child's classroom. Maybe you could assist in making instructional materials or share a hobby with the class.

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Be there when your child comes home from school and ask your child about his/her school day.

Encourage your child to bring home friends from school. Ask them about what is going on at school.

Keep in touch with other parents, particularly parents who might have similar concerns. Talk about any special needs your children have and how you and other parents might work with the school in meeting these needs.

Take advantage of every opportunity to do more and learn more about your child's school. Your child needs you to be involved.

WHEN THE SCHOOL IS RELUCTANT TO INVOLVE PARENTS:

Some schools will be more open to involving parents in school activities than others. If your school seems reluctant to involve parents:

Don't become discouraged.

Don't allow one negative experience to dampen your enthusiasm.

Remember that good relationships are built slowly.

Continue trying the suggestions above.

WHAT MORE CAN YOU DO TO IMPROVE HOME-SCHOOL RELATIONSHIPS?

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RELACIONES DE LA ESCUELA Y EL HOGAR

¿HA PENSADO ALGUNA VEZ SOBRE...

...lo que tienen en común los padres y los maestros?

...el grado de su participación en actividades escolares?

...cómo podría usted mejorar sus relaciones con la escuela?

ALGUNAS IDEAS

1. Los padres tienen hoy más que nunca el potencial de envolverse más con la escuela.

2. Ambos, el hogar y la escuela, son responsables por la educación del niño.

3. La cooperación de los padres con los maestros aumenta las posibilidades de éxito del niño en la escuela.

4. La unión del hogar con la escuela se refuerza cuando los padres y los maestros son capaces de comunicarse.

5. Los padres y los maestros pueden satisfacer mejor las necesidades de los niños si comparten información.

6. Para trabajar juntos más efectivamente, los padres y los maestros necesitan respetarse y aceptarse mutuamente.

PREUBE ESTO

LISTA

1. Haga su propia libreta de calificaciones para enviar a la maestra. Por ejemplo, usted podría enumerar los hábitos de trabajo de su hijo, sus pasatiempos, problemas, obligaciones en la casa, y cualquier otra cosa que sea de ayuda para la maestra.

2. Haga que su niño lleve cuenta de las veces que usted asiste a actividades escolares.

3. Prepare una lista de preguntas para la próxima conferencia con la maestra de su hijo. Pida información específica sobre cómo ayudar a su hijo en la casa.

4. Ofrézcase como intérprete voluntario para ayudar a otros padres quienes, debido a problemas de idioma, no se pueden comunicar con el personal escolar.

5. Haga arreglos con la maestra de su hijo para compartir con la clase su álbum de fotos, sus costumbres familiares, sus recetas de cocina, etc...

6. Haga una lista de las actividades que usted puede tener con su hijo. Hable con la maestra de su hijo sobre ellas.

7. Haga su propia libreta de calificaciones de partcipación de los padres. Dése una calificación cada mes.

MIRANDO ADELANTE

Lee
pastel

LOS PADRES TIENEN MUCHO QUE OFRECER.

Conozca la escuela de su hijo.
Averigüe lo que puede hacer para participar.

LOS PADRES Y LOS MAESTROS PUEDEN SER SOCIOS EN LA EDUCACIÓN DE LOS NINOS.

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IDEAS PARA EDIFICAR RELACIONES POSITIVAS ENTRE EL HOGAR Y LA ESCUELA

****

Cuanto más interés demuestre usted en la escuela de su hijo y en su aprendizaje, más grandes serán las posibilidades de éxito escolar. a continuación se presentan algunas sugerencias sobre lo que puede usted hacer para mejorar las relaciones entre EL HOGAR Y LA ESCUELA.

SI USTED TRABAJA O SI TIENE POCO TIEMPO LIBRE:

Planee una hora específico a cada noche, aunque sea sólo unos minutos, para discutir con su hijo las actividades escolares del día, si tuvo tarea, si se envió a casa alguna comunicación ese día, etc.

Ayude a su hijo para que tenga tiempo y lugar para hacer sus tareas (quizá en la cocina mientras usted cocina).

Ponga a la vista el trabajo de su hijo (péguelo a la hielera por unos días o encuentre otro sitio conveniente). Cuelgue un calendario escolar si tiene uno.

Asista a juntas en la noche en la escuela siempre que pueda (PTA, conferencias).

Envíe notas a la maestra de su hijo, o llámela por teléfono del trabajo, para discutir cualquier preocupación que tenga sobre la educación de su hijo.

Haga donaciones siempre que pueda de materiales para proyectos de clase o para actividades escolares. Envíelos a la escuela con su hijo.

Si es posible, deje de trabajar de vez en cuando para asistir a actividades escolares en las que participe su hijo.

En la mayoría de las escuelas, las conferencias de las maestras con los padres pueden programarse para la noche. Insista en su derecho a una conferencia si le diesen una hora inconveniente para usted.

Trate de ser consistente en el horario de su hijo para irse a dormir y en sus hábitos alimenticios. Haga énfasis a su hijo de la importancia de dormir bien para poder estudiar bien en la escuela.

SI USTED ESTÁ EN EL HOGAR TODO EL DÍA:

Pruebe alguna de las sugerencias ya dadas, más las siguientes.

Provea transporte para paseos escolares si puede, o vaya usted para ayudar.

Visite la clase de su hijo siempre que pueda.

Ofrézcase de voluntario en la clase de su hijo. Quizá pudiese usted ayudar haciendo materiales de instrucción o compartiendo un pasatiempo con la clase.

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Esté en la casa cuando su hijo llegue de la escuela a la casa y pregúntele sobre su día en la escuela.

Invite a su hijo a que traiga amigos de la escuela a la casa. Pregúnteles a éstos sobre la escuela.

Manténgase en contacto con otros padres, especialmente con padres que tienen las mismas preocupaciones. Hable sobre cualquier necesidad especial que sus hijos puedan tener y sobre cómo usted y esos padres pueden trabajar con la escuela para satisfacer esas necesidades.

Aproveche toda oportunidad de hacer más y de aprender más sobre la escuela de su hijo. Su hijo necesita que usted participe.

CUANDO LA ESCUELA NO TIENE INTERÉS EN LA PARTICIPACIÓN DE LOS PADRES:

Algunas escuelas estarán más dispuestas que otras a hacer que los padres participen en actividades escolares. Si su escuela no tiene interés en que los padres participen:

No se desanime.

No deje que una experiencia negativa apague su entusiasmo.

Recuerde que buenas relaciones se edifican lentamente.

Continúe probando las sugerencias que se han dado antes.

¿QUÉ MÁS PUEDE USTED HACER PARA MEJORAR LAS RELACIONES DEL HOGAR Y DE LA ESCUELA?

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PARENTS HAVE A VOICE IN THEIR CHILDREN'S EDUCATION

It is important to keep your children at the grade level appropriate for their age. Sometimes your local school will decide to retain (not pass to the next grade) students because:

- they look young (or are small for their age)
- they don't speak English
- the school staff thinks that the students will learn English more rapidly in the lower grades (which is not true).
- the students have missed many days of school

We want to inform you that many research studies prove that being held back for one year increases by 40% the probability that your child will drop out of school before graduating. If he/she is held back for two years, the probability of dropping out rises to 90%.

The practice of retaining a student almost never benefits a child's academic, social or emotional growth. It is, rather, a painful experience; and we should speak out whenever we question a school's decision.

WHAT CAN YOU DO TO INFLUENCE THE SCHOOL'S DECISION TO RETAIN?

1. Pay attention to the papers that are sent home from school, especially grades. If you want, the school can arrange to have the information translated into Spanish.
2. Make sure that your children attend school every day.
3. Arrange special meetings with teachers to discuss the progress of your children.
4. Enroll your children in school when they are 5 years old. Don't wait!
5. If you don't agree with the school's decision, you have the right and the obligation to protest it. The school staff is not always right, and they will listen to your concerns.
6. If your child is in danger of being retained, take advantage of the opportunity to send him/her to a summer school to make up the work he/she has missed.
7. If you move to a new location, make sure to bring your child's school records in order to avoid grade placement confusion at his/her new school.

KNOWLEDGE IS POWER!

LOS PADRES TIENEN UNA VOZ EN LA EDUCACIÓN DE SUS HIJOS

Es importante mantener a sus hijos en el nivel de grado apropiado a su edad. A veces, su escuela local decidirá retener (no pasar al grado siguiente) a estudiantes porque:

- parece que fueran menores (o son pequeños para su edad)
- no hablan inglés
- el personal escolar cree que los estudiantes aprenderán inglés más rápido en los primeros grados (lo cual no es cierto).
- los estudiantes han faltado mucho a la escuela.

Queremos informarle que muchos trabajos de investigación prueban que el ser retenido por un año aumenta en 40% la probabilidad de que su niño abandone la escuela antes de graduarse. Si él o ella es retenido dos años, la probabilidad aumenta a 90%.

La práctica de retener a un estudiante casi nunca beneficia el crecimiento académico, social o emocional del niño. Es más bien una experiencia dolorosa; y debemos expresarnos libremente cada vez que estemos en desacuerdo con una decisión escolar.

¿QUÉ PUEDE USTED HACER PARA INFLUENCIAR LA DECISIÓN DE RETENER DE LA ESCUELA?

1. Ponga atención a las notas que la escuela envía a casa, especialmente a calificaciones. Si usted gusta, la escuela puede proveer una traducción al español.
2. Asegúrese de que sus niños asistan a la escuela todos los días.
3. Organice juntas especiales con las maestras para discutir el progreso de sus niños.
4. Inscriba a sus niños en la escuela cuando cumplan 5 años. ¡No espere!
5. Si usted no está de acuerdo con la decisión de la escuela, usted tienen el derecho y la obligación de protestar. El personal escolar no tiene siempre la razón, y escucharán sus quejas.
6. Si su niño está en peligro de ser retenido, aproveche la oportunidad de enviarlo a una escuela de verano para ponerse al día en el trabajo atrasado.
7. Si used se muda a otro lugar, asegúrese de traer el expediente escolar de su niño para evitar confusión en la nueva escuela sobre su colocación en un grado.

¡EL CONOCIMIENTO ES PODER!

ASSESSING LANGUAGE MINORITY STUDENTS

ASSESSING LANGUAGE MINORITY MIGRANT STUDENTS

Assessment is a key piece of any educational program. This holds true for migrant education programs as well. You will face some unique and challenging questions as you plan assessment for your migrant students.

Your challenge will be to determine, as well as possible, the language proficiency of your migrant students in order to provide a quality education for all, including those language minority students who are limited in their ability to listen, speak, read, and write in English.

This section is not intended to be a comprehensive guide to assessing language minority students. We hope it will help you organize your own thoughts and questions regarding this complicated task and provide some suggestions for getting started.

PURPOSES FOR ASSESSMENT

You have a variety of purposes for assessing your migrant students. Those purposes include:

1. determining which migrant students can be considered language minority;
2. determining which language minority students are limited English proficient (LEP);
3. determining appropriate placement for new students;
4. determining students' progress in learning English as a second language;
5. determining students' progress in learning their home language;
6. determining students' progress in learning specific concepts and content taught in the classroom.

Your purpose for assessment will help determine the most useful assessment procedure. No single test will do the job. The purposes for assessment listed above present complex questions; there are few simple answers. However, the following guide will help you define your assessment purposes and choose from some recommended procedures, ranging from informal measures to published standardized tests.

IDENTIFYING LANGUAGE MINORITY STUDENTS

Why should you identify language minority students?

This initial screening process will help you identify students who come from a non-English speaking background or those who are language minority students. Some of your migrant students may have a Spanish surname and appear to be Mexican-American. Those same students and their families may use English exclusively and proficiently. Such students can not be considered language minority and their educational needs will be quite different from the Mexican-American student whose family uses Spanish exclusively. Once you know which of your migrant students are language minority, you will know which ones to further assess for limited English proficiency.

How can you identify language minority students?

A very simple way to do this is to add a Home Language Survey to the papers parents must complete to enroll their child in your school. The Home Language Survey can ask some simple questions:

- Does your child speak or understand a language other than English?
  ___ yes ___ no
  If yes, what is that language? _____

- Is there a language other than English spoken in your home?
  ___ yes ___ no

  If yes, what is that language? _____

It is best to have the Home Language Survey in your students' home language as well as English for those parents who are literate in their home language. Or, you can simply ask the parents the questions during the school registration process. An interpreter may make all involved more comfortable and expedite the process. Then place the survey in the child's file.

IDENTIFYING LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT STUDENTS

Why should you identify limited English proficient students?

A quick assessment of English language proficiency will tell you which of your language minority migrant students may:

- need English as a second language (ESL) instruction;
- reasonably be expected to have difficulty in the regular classroom due to limited English proficiency.

How can you assess English language proficiency?

Testing Oral Language Proficiency in English
Testing oral language proficiency test such as the IDEA Oral Language Proficiency Test listed below helps you to determine if your student is non-English speaking (NES), limited English speaking (LES), or fluent English speaking (FES).

Then What?
The non-English speaking students require a great deal of intensive help to begin naming their world in English.

The limited English speaking and the fluent English speaking students should be tested in reading and writing (in both languages if possible) in order to obtain a more complete picture of their language ability. Usually, the younger the student, the sooner he/she will "catch on" and "catch up".

It is also helpful to know how long your student has been attending school in the U.S. Remembering that it requires from five to seven years for a child to learn English thoroughly enough to be able to perform academically on a par with his/her peers; the schooling history can provide an important piece of the assessment puzzle.

Assessing Progress in Learning English as a Second Language
Learning language is a complex task which involves listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Following are some assessment tools you may find helpful. But, remember that language is complex, and no one test will give a complete picture of your students' language proficiencies.

Oral Language

Basic Inventory of Natural Language (BINL)
from: Checkpoint Systems
1558 N. Waterman, Suite C
San Bernardino, CA 92404

Idea Oral Language Proficiency Test (IPT)
from: Ballard and Tighe, Inc.
580 Atlas Street
Brea, CA 92621

Language Assessment Battery (LAB)
from: Riverside Publishing
8420 W. Bryn Mawr Ave.
Chicago, IL 60631

Language Assessment Scales (LAS)
from: CTB/McGraw-Hill
Del Monte Research Park
2500 Garden Road
Monterey, CA 93940

Literacy

Boston Cloze Reading Test
from: Assessment of Language Minority Students: A Handbook for Educators by Hamayan, Kwiat, and Perlman; published by the Illinois Resource Center,

Writing Sample
from: Assessment of Language Minority Students: A Handbook for Educators (reference above)

Language Assessment Battery (LAB)
from: Riverside Publishing
(reference above)

Language Assessment Scales (LAS)
from: CTB/McGraw-Hill
(reference above)

PLACING A STUDENT IN A CLASS OR AT AN INSTRUCTIONAL LEVEL

What should you consider when placing a student?

Success and motivation are keys to effective instruction. So, remember that "limited English proficient" does not mean "limited thinking proficient". A ten year old student may speak very little English, but he/she may also have the experience, interests, and maturity of a fourth grader. When placing students, you will want to consider all the information available to you, including:

Student Factors
- the extent and continuity of previous education.
- interests and maturity.
- language proficiency in English and the student's home language.
- degree of home support for second language learning.
- test scores.

Teacher Factors
- empathy for the limited English proficient migrant student.
- knowledge of the language acquisition process.
- cross-cultural skills.
- flexibility in teaching, modifying lessons, and assessment procedures.
- proficiency in the student's home language and willingness to work with students.
- willingness to work with migrant parents who may speak little or no English.

Scheduling Options

Physical education, art, and music teachers usually use language in highly contextualized ways. That is, they model, act out, gesture, show diagrams and pictures, or ask other students to show what is expected from the class. For this reason, these classes are excellent classes in which the limited English student can learn English with his/her age peers in a low stress environment. Consider placing your limited English proficient students with their age mates in these classes even if you place them at a lower level for reading or social studies.

How can you determine appropriate placement for limited English proficient students?

This is a complex and very important question because placement affects a student's self esteem, motivation, and general sense of belonging in your school. No test will answer this question for you. You will need a wide variety of information (see above) to make an informed decision. Your best bet is to convene a team of informed professionals to make the decision together. Above all, allow yourself the flexibility to change things as a student grows or when a particular placement does not work out. Retention in grade should be considered only as a last resort (see: "Synthesis of Research on Grade Retention" in the Additional Readings section). It is not true that a child placed in a lower grade will learn English more quickly. LEP students are best served by keeping them at grade level, modifying and adapting their assignments, and offering intensive help with English as frequently as possible.

ASSESSING STUDENT PROGRESS IN LEARNING THEIR HOME LANGUAGE

Why should you assess students' progress in learning their home language?

Studying their home language does not hinder students' abilities to learn English. Given the value of multilingualism in our increasingly multicultural society, some migrant programs emphasize proficiency in two languages--English and the students' home language. If your migrant program helps language minority students continue to learn in their home language, you may want to assess this aspect of instruction.

How can you assess student progress in learning their home language?

You will, of course, need professional staff--or a trained interpreter--proficient in the students' home languages for administering, scoring, and interpreting the assessment. For a list of tests and assessment procedures, by various non-English languages, contact:

Bilingual Evaluation Assistance Center
(EAC - Eastern Region)
Georgetown University
1916 Wilson Boulevard, Suite 302
Arlington, VA 22201
800-626-5443 or 703-875-0900

ASSESSING CONTENT AREA AND CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT

Why should you assess concept area and conceptual development?

You will teach your migrant students more than language. So you will want to know how well they are learning math, science knowledge, and social studies concepts. English language tests can't provide adequate information and often an appropriate standardized norm-referenced test or criterion-referenced test does not exist. You can, however, gather evaluation information to build a general profile of each student's level of development to estimate placement, expectations, and progress.

How can you assess concept area and conceptual development?

While your limited English proficient students are learning English, be flexible in assessing content and conceptual development. Consider:

- translating tests into the students' home languages;
- using bilingual staff or a trained interpreter to help interview students, and
- providing students with alternative ways to demonstrate their learning, such as building a model, drawing a map, or conducting an experiment

	Assessment		
LITERACY ASSESSMENT CHECKLIST	*FES	*LEP	*NES
I. ORAL COMPREHENSION			
A. Understands basic functional English	___	___	___
B. Comprehends multi-step directions	___	___	___
C. Recalls information given orally with accuracy	___	___	___
D. Comprehends oral discussion in content area classes	___	___	___
E. Seeks help when clarification is needed	___	___	___
II. ORAL EXPRESSION			
A. Pronounces sounds in words accurately; uses the word correctly in context	___	___	___
B. Acquires vocabulary independently; uses new words in conversations and discussions	___	___	___
C. Expresses ideas in complete thoughts	___	___	___
D. Communicates with teachers	___	___	___
E. Communicates with other students	___	___	___
III. READING			
A. Demonstrates ability in basic work identification skills	___	___	___
B. Distinguishes main idea and details	___	___	___
C. Distinguishes sequence, cause & effect	___	___	___
D. Demonstrates ability in paraphrasing and summarizing written material	___	___	___
E. Demonstrates ability in drawing conclusions	___	___	___
IV. WRITING			
A. Writes legibly	___	___	___
B. Uses correct spelling, punctuation, and capitalization	___	___	___
C. Uses correct grammatical structures	___	___	___
D. Demonstrates ability in writing directions	___	___	___
E. Demonstrates ability in writing short paragraphs	___	___	___
F. Demonstrates ability in writing short reports	___	___	___
V. STUDY HABITS			
A. Shows willingness to participate	___	___	___
B. Works independently	___	___	___
C. Completes work on time	___	___	___

* FES = Fluent English Speaking
LEP = Limited English Speaking
NES = Non English Speaking

STUDENT LANGUAGE SURVEY

Student's Name _____ Date _____

School _____ Grade _____

Teacher _____

Circle the best answer to each question.

1.	Was the first language you learned English?	Yes	No
2.	Can you speak a language other than English?	Yes	No
	If yes, what language? _____		
3.	Which language do you use most often when you speak to your friends?	Other (specify:_____)	English
4.	Which language do you use most often when you speak to your parents?	Other (specify:_____)	English
5.	Does anyone in your home speak a language other than English?	Yes	No

from: The Identification and Assessment of Language Minority Students: A Handbook for Educators 1985. Hamayan et al. Illinois Resource Center. Arlington Heights, Illinois

STUDENT LANGUAGE SURVEY
(SPANISH VERSION)

El Nombre de estudiante _____ Fecha _____

Escuela _____ Grado _____

Maestro(a) _____

Dibuja un circulo en la mejor respuesta a cada pregunta:

1. ¿Fue español la primera lengua que aprendiste? Sí No

2. ¿Puedes hablar otra lengua que español? Sí No
   ¿Qué otra lengua? _____

3. ¿Qué lengua usas con más frecuencia
   cuando hablas con tus amigos? Español Inglés

4. ¿Qué lengua usas con más frecuencia
   cuando hablas con tus padres? Español Inglés

5. ¿Hay alguien en tu casa que hable otra
   lengua que español? Sí No
   ¿Qué otra lengua? _____

ASSESSING READING COMPREHENSION

Reading comprehension skills developed in the first language can also be transferred to the second language. Children who have learned to look for context clues, to read in meaningful chunks instead of word by word, to make inferences and to read silently rather than orally have learned effective reading strategies that will serve them well in reading English. One problem that teachers might not be aware of in developing reading comprehension skills in LEP children is the level of their proficiencies in comprehending it. They may, in fact, comprehend a story of their comprehension when asked to answer questions orally or in writing.

Moll (1982) has found an ingenious solution to this problem by having fourth grade LEP children demonstrate their English reading comprehension through the medium of their first language, Spanish. These children were performing at first grade reading level in English, but were at fourth grade level in Spanish. When they were taught a fourth grade English reading lesson emphasizing higher order comprehension skills and they were permitted to answer questions in Spanish, the children demonstrated a much higher level of reading comprehension in English than their teacher thought they were capable of.

Reading Comprehension
Instructional Strategies

Cloze
Making Predictions

Background

Cloze refers to the procedure of using reading material from which words or partial words have been systematically deleted. The student completes the cloze passage by using the context clues to predict the missing words. The cloze procedure may be used in a variety of instructional applications such as developing reading comprehension in a contextual setting, and evaluating the readability of materials to place students in instructional materials. Since its introduction by Wilson Taylor in 1953, the cloze procedure has taken many forms including the maze technique (providing word choices to fill in deletions), limited cloze (deleted words are randomly listed in the margin), random deletion (every ___nth word), rational deletion (delete selected words such as verbs, nouns), word length clues, macrocloze (deleting entire story part), and progressive cloze (using questions to construct a passage with the initial cloze sentence as a stimulus).

Initiation

The teacher introduces the students to the predictions procedure used in completing cloze passages by using an oral cloze with the students. The oral cloze procedure involves deleting selected content words from a high interest selection. For example, the book Alexander and the Terrible, Horrible, No Good Very Bad Day (Viorst, 1972) is a good choice for an oral cloze because it is humorous, relates to children's experiences, provides many alternatives for discussion, and builds enthusiasm for the prediction process. As the teacher reads aloud, the children supply possible words for each of the words in brackets:

> I went to sleep with gum in my [mouth] and now there's gum in my [hair] and when I got out of [bed] this morning I tripped on the [skateboard] and, by mistake, I dropped my [sweater] in the sink while the [water] was running and I could tell it was going to be a terrible, horrible, no good, very [bad] day.

During the completion of the oral cloze, the teacher should stress "taking risks" in making predictions by emphasizing that there are many correct answers.

Interaction

As students supply possible answers for the words in brackets, the teacher lists them on the board. The students give reasons why their answers make sense. As Blachowicz suggests, students may want to tape-record different versions to keep oral records of "Alexander's Different Terrible Days."

Application

The teacher distributes copies of a cloze paragraph to students. The paragraph should be on the students' independent reading levels. Students read the paragraph silently to predict as many possible answers that make sense in each of the blanks in the paragraph. Students share their predictions and justify their choices. Again, the teacher emphasizes that there are many correct answers.

Expansion

Using materials on the students' independent reading level from content areas, newspapers, magazines, and/or lyrics of popular songs, the teacher distributes copies of selected paragraphs which contain underlined words. Working in teams of two or three, the students read the paragraphs together and record possible synonym substitutions above each of the underlined words.

Suggested References

Blachowicz, Camille L.Z. "Cloze Activities for Primary Readers," The Reading Teacher, 300-302, December, 1977.

Jongsma, Eugene A. Cloze Instruction Research. Newark, DE: International Reading Association, 1980.

Riley, James D. "Progressive Cloze as a Remedial Technique," The Reading Teacher, 576-581, February, 1986.

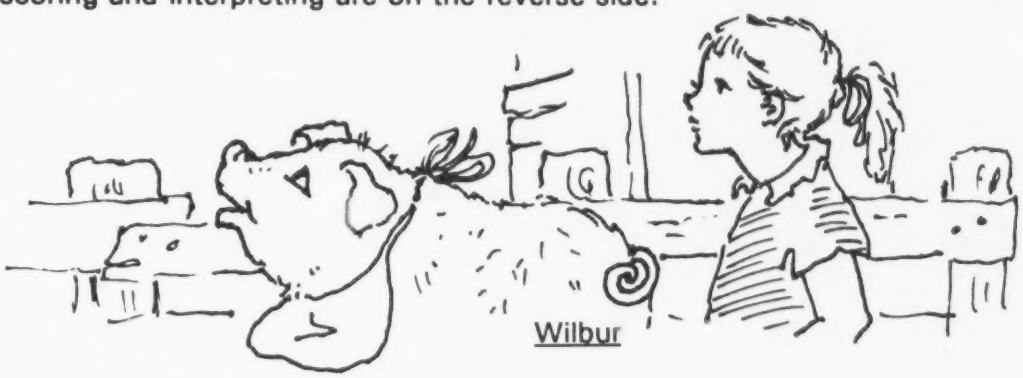
Rye, James. Cloze Procedure and the Teaching of Reading. London, Exeter, NH: Heinemann Educational Books, 1982.

Schoenfeld, Florence G. "Instructional Uses of the Cloze Procedure," The Reading Teacher, 147-151, November, 1980.

CLOZE TESTING FOR YOUR CLASSROOM

Have you ever wondered if a popular child's book would be a good reading for your bilingual/ESL children? Most of us would like to use well known children's books with our particular children but we can never be sure if the reading level will be appropriate or not. Here's how you can tell: use a cloze test like the one below. Cloze testing is by far one of the easiest and fastest methods yet devised for a teacher to measure reading difficulty.

The following cloze passage is taken from Charlotte's Web by E.B. White, a perennial favorite of school children everywhere. To find out if Charlotte's Web is "readable" for your children, make copies of this test and try it out. Directions for scoring and interpreting are on the reverse side.



Wilbur

Wilbur

Fern loved Wilbur more than anything. She loved to stroke him, to feed him, _____ put him to bed. Every morning, _____ soon as she got up, she _____ his milk, tied his bib on, _____ held the bottle for him. Every _____, when the bus stopped in _____ of her house, she jumped out _____ ran to the kitchen to fix _____ bottle for him. She fed him _____ at suppertime, and again just before _____ to bed. Mrs. Arable gave him _____ feeding around the noontime each day, when Fern _____ away in school. Wilbur loved his _____, and he was never happier than _____ Fern was warming up a bottle _____ him. He would stand and gaze _____ at her with adoring eyes.

For _____ first few days of his life, Wilbur _____ allowed to live in a box _____ the stove in the kitchen. Then, _____ Mrs. Arable complained, he was moved _____ a bigger box in the woodshed. _____ two weeks of age, he was _____ outdoors. It was apple blossom time, _____ the days were getting warmer. Mr. Arable _____ a small yard specially for Wilbur under an apple tree, and gave him a large wooden box full of straw, with a doorway cut in it son he could walk in and out as he pleased.

How to Make a Cloze Test

1. Select a self-contained passage of approximately 150 to 200 words taken from one of the books or materials you wish to use with your students.
2. Go through the passage and systematically delete every 7th word leaving the first and last sentences intact. Try to make exactly 25 blanks as this makes the scoring much easier. Important! - Do not choose the items to be deleted: use every seventh word until you reach 25 blanks.
3. Reproduce this, leaving a blank for every deleted word. An underline of ten typewriter spaces is a good size. This is the test.

How to Administer a Cloze Test

1. Be sure to give clear instructions to the students. They are to fill in one word in each of the blanks. There is no one "proper word" or "correct word" that fits each blank. Several alternatives may be perfectly satisfactory as long as they make sense. The important thing to remember is that for each blank there is room for only word.
2. It is sometimes wise to do a few easy sample sentences on the blackboard before students actually take the test. This gives the teacher a chance to clear up any confusions that might arise.
3. Give the test and allow as much time as is needed (within practical limits) for all students to complete it. Don't rush them.

How to Score the Test

1. Go through the test and count up the number of words that are right. Words are correct if they are either the exact word or any other word that is acceptable in the context.
2. Now calculate the percent of correct answers. If you have the 25 blanks you can do this quite easily by merely multiplying the number correct by 4.
3. Compare our percentages against this table to see if the book is appropriate.

Percent of Correct Answers	Comprehension Level	Appropriate for your Class?
above 53%	independent	Yes, it will make easy reading. It's especially appropriate for enjoyment, homework or independent activities.
44% - 53%	instructional	Yes, it will make challenging reading for work within class.
below 44%	frustration	No, it is too difficult. It will probably discourage both you and your students.

Answer Key for Charlotte's Web

1. to	6. front	11. a	16. up	21. to
2. as	7. and	12. was	17. the	22. At
3. warmed	8. another	13. milk	18. was	23. moved
4. and	9. again	14. when	19. near	24. and
5. afternoon	10. going	15. for	20. when	25. fixed

Summarizing Material

Reading/Thinking Skills

Skim to answer these questions:

Who? _____

_____

Where? _____

_____

When? _____

_____

Doing what? _____

_____

Why? _____

_____

Writing/Thinking Skills

Put the above information into three (3) sentences or less.
Make a paragraph.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Critical Thinking Skills

Ask yourself:
- Is anything major missing?
- Did you write more than was necessary?
- Did you use complex sentences?
- Can any of the sentences be combined to form a strong complex sentence?
- Did you use connecting words like therefore, so, eventually, etc.?

STATE AND LOCAL CONTACT PERSONS/RESOURCE AGENCIES

STATE AND LOCAL CONTACT PERSONS

Contact Person	Address/Telephone	Contact for:
George H. Irby Supervisor, Virginia Migrant Education	VA Dept. of Education P.O. Box 6Q Richmond, VA 23216-2060 (tel) 804-225-22911	federal laws, state policy for migrant education; information on VA migrant programs
Pamela Wrigley VA Migrant Education Resource Specialist	2800 Woodley Road, N.W. #534 Washington, D.C. 20008 (tel) 202-483-3957	instructional strategies and materials for use with LEP students; staff development; information on VA Migrant Advisory Council
David E. Cox Supervisor, Foreign Language, ESL, and Bilingual Education	VA Dept. of Education P.O. Box 6Q Richmond, VA 23216-2060 (tel) 804-225-2055	federal/state laws and policy for ESL and bilingual education; information on VA programs for LEP students
Howard L. Amoss Coordinator, Southwestern Virginia Regional Migrant Program	Carroll County Schools P.O. Box 479 Hillsville, VA 24343 (tel) 703-728-9823	information on migrant education profiles in Carroll, Lee, Patrick, Giles, Wythe, Bland, and Smyth counties
Levolia S. Fletcher Area Migrant Coordinator	Regional Migrant Center P.O. Box 37 Mappsville, VA 23407 (tel) 804-824-5295	information on the Migrant Student Record Transfer System (MSRTS) and Accomack County's migrant education program

Contact Person	Address/Telephone	Contact for:
Daisy D. Martin Coordinator, Northampton County Schools Migrant Education Program	Northampton County Schools P.O. Box 37 Eastville, VA 23347 (tel) 804-678-5285	information on Northampton County's migrant education program
Katy Pitcock Coordinator, Winchester Regional Migrant Program	Winchester City Schools P.O. Box 551 Winchester, VA 22601 (tel) 703-667-4253	information on migrant education programs in Winchester City and Shenandoah, Frederick, Clark, and Rockingham counties
Sharon Root Coordinator, Albemarle County Migrant Education Program	Albemarle County Schools 402 McIntire Road Charlottesville, VA 22901 (tel) 800-468-1339 804-296-5888	information on migrant education programs in Albemarle County
Ted Parker Coordinator, Accomack County Schools Migrant Education Program	Accomack County Schools P.O. Box 220 Onancock, VA 23417 (tel) 804-787-4299	information on Accomack County's migrant education program
Malcolm Drumheller Southside Regional Migrant Education Program	Fleetwood Elementary School Roseland, VA 22967 804-277-5018	information on migrant education programs in Buckingham, Nelson, Halifax, Pittsylvania, and Fluvanna counties
John Sessoms Coordinator, Colonial Beach Migrant Education Program	Colonial Beach Schools 300 Garfield Avenue Colonial Beach, VA 22443 (tel) 804-224-7166	information on Colonial Beach's migrant education programs

STATE AND LOCAL CONTACT PERSONS

Agency	Contact/Telephone	Services/Materials
Arlington County Schools ESL Program 1426 North Quincy Street Arlington VA 22207	Emma Hainer, Director (703) 358-6095	instructional materials and strategies
Bureau of Migrant Education Louisiana Department of Education P.O. Box 94064 Baton Rouge, LA 70804-9064	Al Wright, Editor (504) 342-3517	MEMO (Migrant Education Monthly) available free of charge; published monthly
ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics 118 22nd Street, NW Washington, DC 20037	(202) 429-9292	ERIC/CLL Bulletin - included with annual membership to TESOL; published semi-yearly; single copies free of charge
International Reading Association (IRA) 800 Barksdale Road P.O. Box 8137 Newark, DE 19714-8139 also Bilingual Reading Special Interest Group Center for Teaching/Learning Center for Teaching/Learning University of North Dakota Grand Folks, ND 58202	Central Switchboard (302) 731-1600	annual conference Reading Research Quarterly Journal of Reading Reading Teacher publications catalog available Bilingual SIG Newsletter - included with annual IRA membership

Agency	Contact/Telephone	Services/Materials
New Jersey Department of Education Bilingual Education Office 225 West State Street Trenton, NJ 08625	Sylvia Roberts, Director Linda Dold-Collins, Consultant (609) 292-8777	Effective Practices of Bilingual/ESL Teachers - Classroom Strategies for LEP Students publication free of charge
Piedmont ESL Roundtable Albermarle County Schools Migrant Education Office 402 McIntire Road Charlottesville, VA 22901	Sharon Root, Coordinator (800) 468-1339 (804) 296-5888	bimonthly meetings; annual conference
Red Cross in your area	See your local telephone book	translators to accompany parents to appointments, to attend meetings, or translate documents
State Legalization Impact Assistance Grants (SLIAG) VA Dept. of Education P.O. Box 6Q Richmond, VA 23216	Lennox Mclendon, Associate Director of Adult Education (804) 225-2075	educational programs in civics and American government for immigrants who have applied for amnesty; information regarding funds for such programs
TEACHERS OF ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES (TESOL) 1118 22nd Street, NW Suite 205 Georgetown University Washington, DC 20037	(202) 625-4569	annual conference TESOL Newsletter - included with annual membership; published bimonthly TESOL Quarterly - included with membership; published quarterly publications list available

Agency	Contact/Telephone	Services/Materials
Washington Area TESOL (WATESOL) P.O. Box 25502 Washington, DC 20007	Mary Anne Datesman, President (202) 885-2156	seminars annual conference
Southern Virginia Association of TESOL (SOVATESOL) 16014 Fraford Court Virginia Beach, VA 23455	Margaret Thiele, President (804) 440-4112	annual conference
National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) 111 Kenyon Road Urbana, IL 61801	Central Switchboard (217) 328-3870	Language Arts Journal - included with annual membership NCTE Publications - product and price list available
Fairfax County Schools ESL Program 3705 Crest Drive Annandale, VA 22003	Esther Eisenhower, Director (703) 698-7500	instructional materials and strategies newsletter, grant information, program designs, NCBE OATA Base collection (guidelines for instructional programs for LEP students)
National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education Center for Applied Linguistics 1118 22nd St., NW Washington, DC 20037	(800) 321-NCBE	

Resources

The National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education is a federally funded center which provides information on programs, instructional materials, research, and other resources related to the education of LEP students. The Clearinghouse can also provide information on additional networks of federally funded centers that serve school districts with LEP students. Eligibility for free technical assistance from these centers varies according to funding priorities. For information, write or call: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1118 22nd St., NW, Washington, DC 20037. 1-800-321-NCBE.

For Further Reading

Cummins, J., and Swain, M. (1986). Bilingualism in Education: Aspects of Theory, Research and Practice. New York, NY: Longman.

Dodge, D.R., Guillen, L., Panfil, K., Bryant, B., Plitt, W., Kohn, E., (1985). A Classroom Teacher's Handbook for Building English Proficiency. Washington, DC: Creative Associates. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.ED 275 135)

Guillen, L. (1985). A Resource Book for Building English Proficiency. Washington, DC: Creative Associates. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.ED 275 135)

Hittleman, D.R. (1983). Developmental Reading, K-8: Teaching From a Psycholinguistic Perspective (2nd ed.), Chapter 12.Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

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Ovando, C.J., & Collier, V.P. (1985). Bilingual and ESL Classrooms: Teaching in Mulitcultural Contexts. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Paulston, C.B., & Bruder, M.N. (1976). Teaching English as a Second Language: Techniques and Procedures. Boston: Little, Brown.

Richards, J., & Rogers, T. (1986). Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Savignon, S. (1983). Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom Practice. Boston: Addison-Wesley.

Seelye, H.N. (1984). Teaching Culture: Strategies for Intercultural Communication. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.

A GLOSSARY OF SECOND LANGUAGE EDUCATION TERMS

A GLOSSARY OF SECOND LANGUAGE EDUCATION TERMS

1. L1 - a person's first language, also called the native language or home language.

2. L2 - a person's second language, not the language learned from birth. L2 is sometimes used to refer to a person's third or fourth language, indicating simply that it is not the person's native language.

3. dominant language - a person's "stronger language", which may be influenced by the social environment and is relative to the criteria used to compare proficiency information.

4. basic interpersonal communications skills (BICS) - the informal language used for conversation, sometimes dubbed "playground language". BICS is heavily dependent on context-conversational responses, gestures, physical interactions, visual cues.

5. cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) - language grasp believed to be necessary for students to succeed in context reduced and cognitively demanding academic areas such as reading, writing, science, math, social studies, etc.

6. limited English proficient (LEP) - a label applied to persons whose first language is not English and whose English language skills are not equal to those of their peer group.

7. affective filter - negative influences--including anxiety, lack of self-confidence, inadequate motivation--which can hinder the language acquisition process by keeping understandable messages from being understood.

8. comprehensible input - understandable messages that are critical for language acquisition.

9. English as a second language (ESL) - the teaching of English to speakers of other languages through a wide variety of methods.

10. grammar-based ESL - methods which emphasize memorization of vocabulary and drills in grammatical structures.

11. communication based ESL - methods founded on the theory that language proficiency is acquired through exposure to comprehensible messages - that humans are "wired" for language and naturally internalize language structures that make sense; emphasize the negotiation of meaning.

12. natural approach - a communication based ESL methodology of teaching English through extensive use of physical and visual clues, minimal correction of grammatical errors, and an emphasis on communicating messages relevant to students' needs and interests.

13. total physical response - a communication based ESL method that stresses simplified speech and visual and physical clues. It is a kinesthetic sensory system that uses high student involvement and interest in a low-anxiety environment.

14. teaching reading as conversation (TRAC) - employs a language acquisition/reading acquisition model for presenting and learning reading in a communicative context.

15. immersion - programs in which students are taught a second language through content area instruction in that language. These programs generally emphasize contextual clues and adjust grammar and vocabulary to students' proficiency level.

16. submersion - a "sink or swim" situation in which limited English proficient students receive no special language assistance. According to the 1974 Supreme Court Law V. Nichols case, submersion violates federal civil rights law.

17. structured immersion - programs using English only, in a simplified form, as the medium of instruction for certain subjects or for certain periods of the day.

18. sheltered English - content area lessons tailored to limited English proficient students' level of English proficiency.

19. concurrent translation - a practice whereby a teacher shifts between two languages to communicate ideas.

20. transitional bilingual education - programs in which students receive ESL instruction plus content area instruction in their native language (to help them keep up in school subjects while they learn English). The goal is to mainstream students into English classrooms as soon as possible.

21. maintenance (development) bilingual education - programs designed to preserve and develop students' first language while they acquire a second language.

22. additive bilingualism - an enrichment philosophy/program in which students acquire the socially and economically valuable skill of proficiency in a second language without undermining their first (native) language competence or identification with their culture group.

23. subtractive bilingualism - a philosophy/program which attempts to replace students' first (native) language with another language (i.e. English).

24. enrichment model - a model with the underlying premise that knowing two languages is enriching, a bonus, and beneficial to the learner. Enrichment programs build upon the students' existing language skills.

25. compensatory model - a model with the underlying premise that limited English proficiency is a deficit that needs to be fixed or compensated for. Compensatory programs attempt to replace first language skills with the second language.

26. two-way bilingual education - an integrated model in which speakers of two different languages are taught together to learn each other's language and to develop academic language proficiency in both languages.

This glossary was drawn from:

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Ovando, C.J., and Collier, V.P. Bilingual and ESL Classrooms: Teaching in Multicultural Contexts. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1985.

ADDITIONAL READINGS

ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS

Q&A

Working with Limited–English–Proficient Students in the Regular Classroom

Prepared by Nancy Riddlemoser

November 1987

Special English instruction is an essential component of the limited–English–proficient (LEP) student's education. However, the time spent in the regular, non-English as a second language (ESL) classroom is critical in order to reach the goal of mainstreaming or integrating the LEP population into the regular academic program. With understanding on each educator's part, it is possible for the classroom teacher to productively work with LEP students in his or her classroom in order to maximize the students' exposure to authentic language during the school day.

How Can I Communicate with Students Who Do Not Speak English?

•Speak simply and clearly to the students. Try to speak in short, complete sentences in a normal tone of voice. Unless the student is hearing impaired, it is not necessary to speak loudly.

•Use prompts, cues, facial expressions, body language, visual aids, and concrete objects as often as possible. Pointing and nodding toward an open door while saying "Please, shut the door" is much more effective than giving the command in an isolated context.

•Establish oral/aural routines. Greetings each morning and closure at the end of class permit the student to become familiar with and anticipate limited language experiences. Examples include: "Hello, Juan," "Have a nice weekend," "Bye-bye," "See you tomorrow," "Line up for lunch," and "How are you?"

•Communicate warmth to the student. A smile, hello, and a pat on the back give the student the feeling of support needed in an unfamiliar setting (country, school, etc.). Knowing that the teacher is approachable and willing to work with the student is also important.

•Encourage the student to use English as much as possible and to rely on the native language only for more technical and/or emergency situations.

•Find people in the school or community who speak the student's language. Another LEP student at school or a foreign born or a first generation student who speaks the LEP student's native language at home can aid communication between the LEP student and the teacher. Foreign language teachers and ESL teachers are often able to provide assistance in emergency situations. Parents, church members, large businesses, universities, social service agencies, ethnic restaurants, and foreign merchants are valuable community resources. It is also helpful to know whether any of the LEP student's family members speak English.

•Keep talking to the student. It is normal for him or her to experience a "silent period" that can last days, weeks, or even months. In order to learn the language, the student must first develop active listening skills, followed by speaking, reading, and writing.

How Can I Best Meet the LEP Student's Social and Academic Needs in the Regular Classroom?

The first and most basic need is to ensure that the LEP student feels comfortable and secure. Social and psychological factors are of utmost importance in teaching LEP students. It is often frightening for a student of any age to be placed in a new classroom. This is magnified by the new language and cultural differences and compounded by the possible traumas and hardships that may have occurred prior to the student's move or relocation. In general, expect most children to adapt relatively quickly to the new placement. Teens are a bit slower, and adults usually require the most time.

A "buddy system" is an excellent way to ensure the LEP student is cared for. If possible, you may want more than one buddy for each student. Choose a native language sharer for academics and an "English only" for the more social, active, less technical language-oriented activities. "Buddy duty" should always be portrayed as a special privilege and *not* a chore. Having friends will make the LEP student feel better and help him or her learn more English at a faster rate. It may also increase your other students' acceptance of different nationalities.

Because you wish to enhance your LEP student's self-esteem and school career, pair him or her with someone whose behavior is one you wish modeled. Teaming up a LEP student with a trouble-maker may compound your classroom discipline problems.

Include the LEP student in as many activities, lessons, and assignments as possible, even if only for the socialization aspect. He or she needs the contact, language exposure and "cultural training." This allows the other students to view the LEP student as a true peer, valuable classmate, and desirable friend.

Present a positive approach to your class when dealing with the LEP student. When you say "Juan doesn't understand this, leave him alone" or "This is too hard for Khve," expect some students to avoid him at recess or lunchtime. It would be better to say, "Please help Juan with that page" or "Would you show Khve how we do this?"

Center for Applied Linguistics
1118 22nd Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20037

Have everyone in the building share in the responsibility of teaching the LEP student about your school, class, special projects, and community. This will satisfy the LEP student's sense of belonging and enrich the worlds of the other students and staff members.

If your school has a professional assessment center, it would be to your advantage to have the LEP student evaluated for achievement levels. If your school has an ESL teacher, reading specialist, visiting teacher, psychologist, or guidance counselor, you may feel more comfortable having them assist the student using a standardized battery of tests or conducting an informal survey or inventory.

Of course you will be able to assess many aspects of your student's social and academic development through careful observation. Does the student come to class prepared (with pencils, paper, etc.)? Is the student attentive and eager to participate? Can the student answer questions about his or her name, age, and where he or she is from? To determine specific academic achievement levels, try some of the following activities:

•Ask the student to copy the alphabet and numbers.

•Ask him or her to recite (or write) the alphabet and numbers from memory.

•Ask the student to repeat names of objects after you. (Show pictures of foods, vehicles, people, etc.).

•Ask the student to read a sample from the previous grade level. If he or she cannot, try a sample from a lower grade level (beginning with first grade, if appropriate), and determine up to which grade level the student can read.

•Ask the student to answer math computation problems from the previous grade level. If he or she cannot, try problems from a lower level. Math can be an important tool in determining appropriate grade level placement or grouping.

Date, sign, and keep a record of your findings. Whether a sophisticated tool or a very informal tool is used, the student's school career and subsequent progress may be measured against this. Compare what you have found with available grades, reports, or tests in the student's records. Note any changes or discrepancies between these records and your own findings.

An inability to reproduce sounds and difficulty in copying or writing may be normal phases in a LEP student's acquisition of English. However, they may also point to a learning disability. It is possible that a LEP student may need special education services.

Furthermore, many factors may drastically affect the LEP student's mental health, including traumas, experiences overseas, problems adapting to a new environment, and poor living conditions in the present environment. Some students may never have been to school before. Slowness in catching on to "simple" concepts could be lack of educational exposure, newness of material, or a learning disability.

In addressing the student's academic needs, remember to provide learning experiences and assignments that will enable him or her to feel productive, challenged, and successful. The LEP student needs a variety of tasks and assignments closely related to what the students in the regular classroom are doing. For example, while your class is working on math, the LEP student may work on a math assignment as well, perhaps of lesser difficulty. The important thing is that he or she is becoming more organized and involved in class routine.

Keep communication lines open. Try to coordinate whatever the ESL teacher is doing with what goes on in your class. The consistency and repetition of concepts and/or lessons can only help the LEP student.

In class discussion, call on the student as soon as possible. Even if the LEP student cannot speak much English, have him or her come to the board to point to the map, complete the number line, circle the correct answer, etc. Assign responsibilities such as washing the board, passing out papers, collecting homework, sharpening pencils, serving as line leader, etc. These activities will help the LEP student feel special and useful and help to develop citizenship skills.

What Techniques, Instructional Materials and Resources Are Recommended for Use with LEP Students?

It is important to maintain high expectations of LEP students, be prepared for their success and progress, and keep in mind that LEP students are generally not a remedial population. Usually the younger the student, the sooner he or she will "catch up" and "catch on."

If the student is receiving ESL instruction, your job may be easier if you establish a close relationship with the ESL teacher. Together you can plan the student's educational program. If there is no ESL teacher, you may work directly with the foreign language teacher(s), reading specialist, special education teacher, parent volunteers, or anyone else who may have resources, ideas, and time to share.

At the elementary level you can borrow workbooks, teaching aids, audio visual equipment, and assignment sheets from the lower grades. Curriculum guides and the entry/exit minimum skill requirements for each grade level are excellent resource guidelines.

Native language dictionaries, bilingual dictionaries, and picture dictionaries (of varying degrees of difficulty) are essentials for you and the LEP student. Encourage and expect the student to make use of these and any other suitable reference materials as soon as possible.

Your primary techniques will involve 1) individualizing; 2) adapting; and 3) modifying classwork for the LEP student. Always consider his or her language development, study skills and the subject content while doing so. Examples of these techniques are described below.

•*Individualizing:* If the LEP student in an elementary classroom clearly comprehends the meaning of words for a spelling lesson yet cannot express the meaning of the words orally, you may wish to individualize the spelling assignment by allowing him or her to "draw the definition" of each word. The LEP student who is unable to define the word *car*, for example, as "a moving vehicle with four wheels" could convey his or her understanding of the concept by drawing a simple diagram or illustration. Individualizing a science project at the secondary level may require a detailed picture or model of the subject being studied (i.e., the heart, plants, the weather) with labels being copied in English and possibly in the student's native language.

•*Adapting:* Adapting a primary or secondary level mathematics test or textbook for the LEP student whose computational skills are well–developed but whose reading skills are less so may involve deleting word problems in math altogether. To compensate for this deletion, you may wish to add more computational problems or to grade only the computation part of a test. Social studies assignments,

on the other hand, may require more language than the student possesses. Therefore, you may find simple memorization activities helpful for the LEP student; sample activities may include memorizing the states of the United States and their respective capitals, the names of the seven continents of the world, five explorers of the New World, or three Presidents of the United States. Activities such as unscrambling key vocabulary terms or matching vocabulary words with their definitions are also useful.

Modifying: In an elementary reading class, it would be quite feasible to use a lower level basal series for "reading time." The LEP student would still be responsible for reading but at a suitable pace and appropriate level. At both the elementary and secondary levels, spelling, grammar, and punctuation exercises may be assigned from a lower level textbook or workbook that corresponds to whatever the class is learning at the time.

Remember to frequently include concrete objects and everyday experiences across the curriculum. This will give the student a solid base in dealing with his or her new environment. Examples include:

Mathematics: using the calendar; handling money in the cafeteria or store.

Telling Time: changing classes; using daily movie, TV, and bus schedules.

Vital Statistics: height, weight, and age.

Survival Skills: address and telephone number, measuring distance; reading cooking measurements; making shopping lists, etc.

Science: hands-on experiments, plant and animal care, charts, graphs, illustrations, specimens.

Social Studies: hands-on experiences such as field trips, movies, magazine and newspaper clippings, collages, maps, flags, customs, and "show and tell," using materials from home or travels.

Art, Music and Physical Education: participating in all instructional and recreational activities; inviting the student to share activities of this nature from his homeland. These courses may provide the only outlets for the LEP student to express him- or herself.

Design a seating arrangement where the LEP student can be involved with whole group, individual, and peer group activities. The LEP student needs a flexible arrangement to fit his or her special needs. Sometimes just a small space where it is possible to concentrate is sufficient. You may find it helpful to seat the student near you or his or her buddy.

Will the LEP Student Understand My Classroom Rules and Follow Directions?

LEP students will follow your classroom rules very much the same way other students do. Indeed, it is important that the LEP student learn your classroom management system as soon as possible; otherwise, potential discipline problems may arise such as unruly behavior, classmate ridicule, and feelings of resentment. Although the first weeks may be a confusing time for the LEP student, it is important that he or she understand your expectations from the very beginning.

•The use of visibly displayed charts, graphs, and reward systems will assist you in communicating your expectations. Illustrate with symbols or pictures if there is any doubt about the difficulty of the language level.

•Reminders of rules and their consequences (both positive and negative) need to be in plain sight or easily accessible. Smiley faces, sad faces, checks, stars, 100% and for your younger students, stickers, are all easily recognizable symbols and quickly learned.

•Demonstrate consistency, concern, and control. These may be conveyed nonverbally, and an alert student will recognize classroom routines and expectations, like checking homework or going to the office for a tardy slip, very early in the school year. The LEP student's understanding of common classroom rewards such as "stickers," "outside," "treat," and "grade" are proof that the LEP student knows what is happening in the classroom. He or she must therefore be held to the same standards of appropriate behavior as the other students, and be rewarded or punished accordingly. Moreover, the other students need to see that the LEP student is treated as an equal.

•At the beginning, LEP students will attempt to follow verbal directions while actually observing modeled behavior. So, while speaking about a math problem in the text, for example, point to someone who has his or her math book open; hold up a ruler when telling the students to use a ruler for their work; when students are coloring maps for social studies, have a student show the LEP student his box of crayons, point to the map and nod "yes."

•While others are doing seatwork, the LEP student may copy from the board or a book, practice using appropriate worksheets, work quietly with a peer, listen to tapes, use a language master, or illustrate a topic.

•Design a list of commonly used "directional" words such as *circle, write, draw, cut, read, fix, copy, underline, match, add, subtract.* Have the LEP student find these "action" words in a picture dictionary with a buddy or alone. Then have the student illustrate these words with symbols or translate them into the native language. The student may keep these words in the front of a notebook, on the desk, or in a pencil case. They will help the LEP student become an independent learner, capable of being resourceful and occupied when you are not available to help. Underline or circle these terms on the board, on worksheets, or in consumable texts. When these words are recognized by the student, you can expect him or her to complete the assigned tasks independently.

What Can I Do to Learn About the LEP Student's Culture?

•Ask the student about his country and enthusiastically assign the country to your class as a social studies project. Engage the entire school in international education. The more you and your class ask and learn from the LEP student, the sooner he or she will feel confident and comfortable.

•Go to the library; read *National Geographic;* invite foreign speakers to your school such as families, religious leaders, merchants, visiting professionals. Keep current on movies, traveling exhibits, local festivals. Listen to the news and discuss pertinent issues with the class.

•Find out which holidays the LEP student celebrates and how they are celebrated. Find out whether the LEP student's customs are similar to American customs. On United Nations Day or during Brotherhood Week, have the students make flags and foods from different countries. Perhaps the LEP student has clothes, money, photos, artwork, songs, games, maps, an alphabet or number charts to share with other students. All are valid educational media. Invite

foreign parents to teach their native languages in your class for an exciting project. Celebrate "Christmas Around the World."

What Specific Activities Can I Do to Prepare the LEP Student for Life in the United States?

•Explain, demonstrate, and anticipate possible difficulties with everyday routines and regulations whenever time permits. If there is a large LEP population in your school or district, perhaps volunteers could compile pictorial or bilingual guidelines or handbooks with details of policy and procedures. Depending upon the student's experience(s) with formal education, the need for explanations may vary greatly. Consider the following routines as "teaching opportunities" to prepare the students for American culture:

IN CLASS

•Class rules (rewards, enforcement, consequences).
•School conduct.
•Morning rituals (greetings, calendar work, assignments, collection of money, homework).
•Library conduct (checkout, book return).
•Field trips/permission slips.
•Gym (participation, showers, attire).
•School photographs (dress, payment).
•Substitutes.
•Seat work/group work.
•Tests, quizzes, reports.
•Grades, report cards, incompletes.
•"Treats."
•Free time.
•Teams (choosing, assigning).
•Standardized testing (exemptions).
•Exams.
•Special projects (extra credit, double grades).

IN SCHOOL

•Breaks: bathroom, water, recess.
•Cafeteria routines: line formation, lunch passes.
•Fire drills.
•Assemblies/pep rallies/awards/ awards ceremonies.
•Contests/competitions.
•Holidays/festivities/traditions.
•Fund raisers/"drives."
•Routine health exams, screening.
•Suspension.
•Guidance counseling.
•Disciplinary methods (in-school suspension).
•Free lunch (income verification).
•"Family life" education (sex education).

AFTER SCHOOL

•Parent conferences and attendance.
•PTA meetings.
•Proms, dances, special events.
•Field days.
•Clubs, honor societies, sport activities.
•Detention.
•Summer school.

Resources

The National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education is a federally funded center which provides information on programs, instructional materials, research, and other resources related to the education of LEP students. The Clearinghouse can also provide information on additional networks of federally funded centers that serve school districts with LEP students. Eligibility for free technical assistance from these centers varies according to funding priorities. For information, write or call: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 8737 Colesville Road, Suite 900, Silver Spring, MD 20910. Telephone: (301) 588-6898 or 1-800-647-0123.

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Office of Educational Research and Improvement ***U.S. Department of Education***

ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS

ERIC Digest

Limited-English-Proficient Students in The Schools: Helping the Newcomer

Prepared by Terry Corasaniti Dale

December 1986

At The Beginning: Helping The Newcomer

In the 1980's, there is hardly a school in the United States which has not enrolled some number of limited-English-proficient (LEP) students. Administrators and teachers throughout the country are striving to meet the challenge of integrating these students from the beginning into the social and academic life of their schools.

LEP students and their parents need a network of support to familiarize them with school routines, to help them understand and comply with school rules and regulations, to help them take advantage of many school-related services and, ultimately, to successfully follow their designated course of study. There are a number of ways in which schools can provide such a network to make the transition to schooling in the United States easier.

What Administrators Can Do

One of the most important things administrators can do is to ensure that information about new LEP students is available to all school personnel, parents and students. As the "hub" of the information network, principals, counselors and office personnel should:

1. Have available names of interpreters who can be called on to help register students; to work with counselors and teachers in explaining school rules, grading systems and report cards; and to help when students are called in for any kind of problem or in case of an emergency. Many school systems have a list of such interpreters which is kept in the central office. A school can augment this list or start its own with local business people, senior citizens, college professors, students, and parents who are bilingual and who are available before, during or after school hours. Responsible students who are bilingual can also serve as interpreters when appropriate.

2. Have available for all teachers a list of LEP students that includes information on country of origin and native language, age, the last grade attended in the home country, current class assignments and any and all information available about the students' academic background. Since new LEP students are enrolled in school throughout the year, updated lists should be disseminated periodically. School staff who are kept aware of the arrival of new LEP students can prepare themselves and their students to welcome children from different language and cultural backgrounds.

How The School Staff Can Help

The most important and challenging task facing schools with LEP students is finding expedient ways to integrate new LEP students into the academic activities of the school. In most cases, it is nearly impossible for schools to know in advance how many LEP students will enroll from year to year or to foresee what level of academic skills students will bring with them. Nevertheless, school staff need to have a set of well-planned procedures for placing students in the appropriate classroom, as well as procedures for developing instructional plans, many of which must be developed on an individual student basis. School administrators should provide staff with the time and resources to accomplish this. The following activities are suggested:

1. Assess students' level of skills (including reading and mathematics) in their native language.

2. Assess students' English language proficiency, including listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. [It should be noted here that many school systems with large numbers of LEP students often have a center where all initial assessment is done and from where the information may be sent on to the receiving school. Schools in systems which do not have such "in-take" centers must complete student evaluation themselves.]

3. When class schedules are devised (particularly in intermediate and secondary school), schedule slots for classes where LEP students can be grouped for intensive, special classes in English as a second language and mathematics. LEP students should not be isolated for the entire school day; however, at least in the very beginning, the grouping of students according to English language proficiency or academic skills levels is essential. This is

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particularly true for schools with small numbers of LEP students scattered throughout grade levels. Planning ahead for such special groupings avoids disrupting schedules during the school year. The participation of school principals and counselors in this process is essential.

4. Conduct regular information discussion sessions with the school staff and resource people who know something about the students' languages, cultures, and school systems in the various countries of origin. Many schools schedule monthly luncheon sessions where staff who are working in the classroom with the same LEP students may meet and compare notes. Such discussions usually focus on appropriate instructional approaches to be used with LEP students, or how to interpret student behaviors or customs that are unfamiliar to the teacher. These sessions can be invaluable since they may constitute the only time that staff have the opportunity to consult one another, in addition to outside sources, on issues that are vitally important to classroom success.

What Students Can Do

A support network for LEP students is complete only when all students are included and allowed to help in some way. One way to involve the student body is to set up a "buddy system" which pairs new students with students not new to the system. Where possible, LEP students may be paired with responsible students who speak their native language. These student teams go through the school day together so that the newcomers may learn school routines from experienced peers who have gone through the adjustment period themselves.

New LEP students may also be paired with native English-speaking peers. In this way, LEP students begin to learn survival English at the same time that they are getting to know other students in the school. As tutors, student "buddies" may help newcomers with academic work, especially in classes where extra teacher help is not consistently available.

Teachers should initially establish buddy systems in their own classrooms, but student organizations, such as the student council, foreign language clubs, or international student groups can help maintain the systems.

A Final Note: Working Together

Administrators and teachers should encourage LEP students and their parents to participate in social and academic activities. A good way to get them started is to invite them to talk about the history, geography, literature and customs of their home countries in class. Such presentations should be a planned part of the curriculum throughout the year.

Many schools also plan special school assemblies (or even an entire day) to celebrate the cultural diversity of the student body or to spotlight outstanding work done by LEP students. Many other activities may be initiated which give LEP students and their English-speaking peers opportunities to interact and work together.

Schools which see LEP students and their families as rich sources of first-hand information about life in other countries and cultures are very often the most successful in helping LEP students to become productive, contributing members of the school community.

Resources

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Other Topics

Synthesis of Research on Grade Retention

Although grade retention is widely practiced, it does not help children to "catch up." Retained children may appear to do better in the short term, but they are at much greater risk for future failure then their equally achieving, non-retained peers.

Retaining students in grade is often used as a means to raise educatonal standards. The assumption is that by catching up on prerequisite skills, students should be less at risk for failure when they go on to the next grade. Strict enforcement of promotion standards at every grade is expected both to ensure the competence of high school graduates and lower the dropout rate because learning deficiencies would never be allowed to accumulate. Despite the popular belief that repeating a grade is an effective remedy for students who have failed to master basic skills, however, the large body of research on grade retention is almost uniformly negative.

Research Evidence

The purpose of this article is to summarize research-based conclusions regarding the effects of grade retention. We then address the discrepancy between research and practice and consider alternatives to retention.

How many students repeat a grade in school? Although no national statistics have been collected on grade retention, we recently (1989a) analyzed data from 13 states and the District of Columbia. Our estimate is that 5 to 7 percent of public school children (about 2 children in every classroom of 30) are retained in the U.S. annually. However, annual statistics are not the whole story. A 6 percent annual rate year after year produces a cumulative rate of nonpromotion greater than 50 percent. Even allowing for students who repeat more than one grade, we estimate that by 9th grade approximately half of all students in the U.S. have flunked at least one grade (or are no longer in school). This means that, contrary to public perceptions, current grade failure rates are as high as they were in the 19th century, before the days of social promotion.

Does repeating a grade improve student achievement? In a recent meta-analysis of research, Holmes (1989) located 63 controlled studies where retained students were followed up and compared to equally poor-achieving students who went directly on to the next grade. Fifty-four studies showed overall negative effects from retention, even on measures of academic achievement. This means that when retained children went on to the next grade they actually performed more poorly on average than if they had gone on without repeating. Suppose, for example, that retained and control groups both started out at the 10th percentile on standardized achievement tests at the end of 1st grade. The retained group was made to repeat 1st grade while the control group was promoted to 2nd grade. Two years later when the retained children completed 2nd grade, they might be (on average) at the 20th percentile. However, the control children, who started out equally deficient, would finish 2nd grade achieving ahead of their retained counterparts by 0.31 standard deviation units, or at roughly the 30th percentile on average.

When Holmes selected only the 25 studies with the greatest degree of statistical control, the negative effect of

retention was again confirmed. In the 9 positive studies (out of 63), the apparent benefit of retention tended to diminish over time so that differences in performance between retained and control children disappeared in later grades.

Does nonpromotion prevent school dropouts? In a typical end-of-year news story, *USA Today* (Johnson 1988) reported that one-quarter of the 1st graders in a Mississippi community would be held back because they "can't read at a 1st-grade level." Consistent with the view that retention will repair deficient skills and improve students' life chances, the principal explained her decision: "In years past, those students would have been promoted to 2nd grade. Then they might have dropped out in five, six, or seven years."

Researchers of the dropout phenomenon have consistently found a significant relationship between grade retention and dropping out—in the opposite direction, however, from the one imagined by the Mississippi principal. Dropouts are five times more likely to have repeated a grade than are high school graduates. Students who repeat two grades have a probability of dropping out of nearly 100 percent (Association of California Urban School Districts 1985). In the past, these findings were ignored because poor achievement could be the explanation for both grade retention and dropping out. More recently, Grissom and Shepard (1989) conducted three large-scale studies, involving from 20,000 to 80,000 students each. They examined the retention-dropout relation after controlling for achievement and found that with equally poor achievement (and controlling for other background characteristics associated with dropping out), students who repeated a year were 20 to 30 percent more likely to drop out of school. For example, in Austin, Texas, African-American males with below average achievement have a 45 percent chance of dropping out of school; but African-American males with identical achievement scores who have repeated a year of school have a 75 percent chance of leaving school before graduation. A substantially increased risk for dropping out after repeating a grade was found even in a large affluent suburban school district with only a 4 percent dropout rate.

What are the emotional effects of retention? In a much-quoted study of childhood stressors by Yamamoto (1980), children rated the prospect of repeating a grade as more stressful than "wetting in class" or being caught stealing. Going blind or losing a parent were the only two life events that children said would be more stressful than being retained. The negative connotations of being held back pervade the American school culture. When Byrnes (1989) interviewed children and used euphemisms to refer to spending two years in the same grade, even 1st graders said, "Oh, you mean flunking." Eighty-seven percent of the children interviewed said that being retained made them feel "sad," "bad," "upset," or "embarrassed." Only 6 percent of retained children gave positive answers about how retention made them feel, like, "you learn more," or "it lets you catch up." Interview transcripts from both high-achieving students and retained students revealed a widely shared perception that retention is a necessary punishment for being bad in class or failing to learn.

Holmes' (1989) synthesis of controlled studies included nearly 50 studies with some social or emotional outcome measures. On average, Holmes found that retained students do more poorly than matched controls on follow-up measures of social adjustment, attitudes toward school, behavioral outcomes, and attendance.

The above research findings indicate, then, that contrary to popular belief, repeating a grade actually worsens achievement levels in subsequent years. The evidence contradicts commonsense reasoning that retention will reduce school dropout rates; it seems more likely that school policies meant to increase the number of grade retentions will exacerbate dropout rates. The negative social-emotional consequences of repeating represents the only area where conventional wisdom is consistent with research findings: kids have always hated being retained, and the studies bear that out.

Reconciling Research and Practice

Policies of grade retention persist in the face of negative evidence because teachers and parents cannot conduct controlled experiments. Without controlled comparisons, retention looks as if it works, especially if you believe that it does. Consider how the performance of individual retained and control children is interpreted by teachers. A control child does very poorly academically, is considered for retention, but is socially promoted. Consistent with the 30th percentile figure quoted from the Holmes (1989) study above, the control child ends up in the bottom half of the class, still struggling. Teachers then say, "If only we had retained him, his performance would have improved." Meanwhile, a comparable child does repeat, shows improvement during the repeat year on some skills, but in the next grade does even more poorly than the control child. Believing that retention helps, however, and without being able to see the controlled comparison, teachers accept any improvement during the repeat year itself as proof that retention works; and about poor performance in the next grade they say, "He would have done even more poorly without the extra year," or "At least we tried."

Schools are also under considerable political pressure to maintain acceptably high levels of grade retention as proof of high standards. Public belief in the efficacy of retention creates a powerful mandate: Flunk poor-achieving students for their own good as well as society's good. Without a simple way to explain to the public that at-risk students are more likely to learn and stay in school if not retained, schools may sacrifice the best interests of individual children to appease popular demands.

What alternatives are there to retention? There are numerous ways to provide extra instructional help focussed on a student's specific learning needs within the context of normal-grade promotion. Remedial help, before- and after-school programs, summer school, instructional aides to work with target children in the regular classroom, and no-cost peer tutoring are all more effective than reten-

tion. Unlike retention, each of these solutions has a research base showing positive achievement gains for participating children over controls. Cross-age peer tutoring, for example, where an average 5th grade student might tutor a 2nd grader who is behind in math, shows learning gains for both the target students and the tutors (Hartley 1977).

One of the fears about social promotion is that teachers will pass on deficient students endlessly as if no one had noticed their problem. Rather than ban retention but do nothing else, creative groups of teachers in a few schools have developed staffing teams (of regular teachers) to work out plans with the next-grade receiving teachers about how to address the learning difficulties for students who otherwise would have been retention candidates. Similarly, some schools "place" poorly performing students in the next grade with a formally agreed upon Individualized Educational Plan (IEP), akin to the special education model of intervention. The decision to allow a deficient student to advance to the next grade with a plan for special help is analogous to prevalent school policies for gifted students. Instead of double promoting academically gifted students, schools keep them in their normal grade and provide them with enriched instruction. There are two reasons enrichment is preferred over skipping grades. First, normal grade placement is better socially for academically able students. Second, these able children are not equally advanced in every subject, and the amount they are ahead does not come in convenient nine-month units. Parallel arguments can be used to explain why retention does not improve achievement but promotion plus remediation does. Finally, there is reason to believe that struggling students need a more inspired and engaging curriculum, one that involves them in solving meaningful problems, rather than repetitive, by-rote drills on basic skills. Outmoded learning theories (e.g., Thorndike's [1972] S-R bonds and behaviorism's programmed instruction [Mager 1962]) require children to master component skills before they are allowed to go on to comprehension and problem solving; this theory consigns slow learners to school work that is not only boring but devoid of any connection to the kinds of problems they encounter in the real world.

The second wave of educational reform, exemplified by curricular changes in California and the new standards of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, is based on more current learning theory from cognitive and constructivist psychology (Resnick 1987, Wertsch 1985), which holds that skills cannot be learned effectively nor applied to new problems unless the skills are learned in context. For example, students who are given lots and lots of problems to solve about how much tile to buy to floor a room with irregular dimensions and how much paint to buy are more likely to be better at both multiplication facts and problem solving than students who must memorize all

Highlights of Research on Grade Retention

A synthesis of the research on grade retention shows that:

- Grade failure rates are as high as they were in the 19th century, before the days of social promotion: Although annual statistics show only about a 6 percent annual rate for retention, year after year that produces a cumulative rate of nonpromotion greater than 50 percent. By 9th grade approximately half of all students in the U.S. have flunked at least one grade (or are no longer in school).
- Retained children actually perform more poorly on average when they go on to the next grade then if they had been promoted without repeating a grade.
- Dropouts are five times more likely to have repeated a grade than are high school graduates. Students who repeat two grades have a probability of dropping out of nearly 100 percent.
- Children in Yamamoto's (1980) study of childhood stressors rated the prospect of repeating a grade as more stressful than "wetting in class" or being caught stealing. The only two life events they felt would be more stressful than being retained were going blind or losing a parent. Both high-achieving and retained students interviewed by Byrnes (1989) viewed retention as a necessary punishment for being bad in class or failing to learn.
- There are many alternatives to retention that are more effective in helping low achievers. These include remedial help, before- and after-school programs, summer school, instructional aides to work with target children in the regular classroom, and no-cost peer tutoring. Groups of teachers in some schools have developed staffing teams to work out plans with the next-grade receiving teachers about how to address the learning difficulties for students who otherwise would have been retention candidates. Some schools "place" poor performing students in the next grade with a formally agreed upon Individualized Educational Plan (IEP), akin to the special education model of intervention.
- The annual cost to school districts of retaining 2.4 million students per year is nearly $10 billion. Summer school costs only approximately $1,300 per student compared to $4,051 for a repeated grade. At a wage of $6 an hour for an aide, it would take the savings from only 1.6 retained students to have an extra adult in every classroom full time to give extra attention to low-achieving students.

Remedial help, before- and after-school programs, summer school, instructional aides to work with target children in the regular classroom, and no-cost peer tutoring are all more effective than retention.

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Children rated the prospect of repeating a grade as more stressful than "wetting in class" or being caught stealing.

their multiplication tables before confronting even one such problem.

How much does retention cost? Can the dollars saved by not retaining students be reallocated to more effective alternatives? Based on an annual retention rate of 6 percent and a per pupil cost of $4,051 (U.S. Department of Education, Center for Education Statistics), we estimated that U.S. school districts spend nearly $10 billion a year to pay for the extra year of schooling necessitated by retaining 2.4 million students (see study cited in author's note at end of article).

Ten billion dollars would go a long way to pay for remedial programs, summer school, classroom aides, or reduced class size to help at-risk students learn. For example, summer school costs only approximately $1,300 per student compared to $4,051 for a repeated grade. Even special education help for a learning disabled child costs on average only $1,600 (half of which is spent on testing and staffing instead of instruction). At a wage of $6 an hour for an aide, it would take the savings from only 1.6 retained students to have an extra adult in every classroom full time.

Ironically, however, retention does not appear as a line item in any educational budget. No jurisdiction appears to bear the cost of the extra year. Because most students do not stay in the same district for 13 years of school, it does not matter to local districts that some students take 14 years. If a student stays in a district only 4 years, then the cost of grades 1–2–3–4 is the same as grades 1–2–3–3. Even states are not aware that they are paying for an extra year. Because the real cost of retention is never explicitly acknowledged, local educators find it difficult to redirect savings from students not retained to more effective instructional programs.

The Futility of Flunking

Researchers have not been able to tell why retention doesn't work as intended. Some speculate that the negative emotional effects of repeating harm subsequent learning. Others suggest that going through the same material again is a crude and ineffec-

No Benefits from Kindergarten Retention

The decade of the 1980s saw a dramatic rise in the number of children asked to repeat kindergarten. In districts with special programs for "unready" kindergartners, as many as 50 percent were held back (California Department of Education 1988). An extra year before 1st grade is now offered in a variety of different forms: transition classrooms before 1st grade, developmental kindergarten before kindergarten, and straight repeating of kindergarten. According to its advocates, kindergarten retention, because it is intended to prevent school failure caused by immaturity, is different from retention in later grades.

Controlled studies do not support the benefits claimed for extra-year programs, however, and negative side effects occur just as they do for retention in later grades. In a review of 16 controlled studies on the effects of extra-year programs, the predominant finding is one of no difference (Shepard 1989). For example, when researchers followed extra-year children to the end of 1st grade or as far as 5th grade and compared their performance to unready children whose parents refused the extra year, the extra-year children performed no better academically despite being a year older for their grade. The conclusion of "no benefit" holds true even for studies where children were selected on the basis of immaturity rather than for academic risk, and even where a special transition curriculum was offered rather than repeating regular kindergarten.

Although the majority of teachers believe that retention in kindergarten does not carry a social stigma "if handled properly," extra-year children are more likely to have lower self-concepts and poorer attitudes toward school compared to controls (Shepard 1989). Parent interviews reveal both short-term and long-term distress associated with the retention decision such as teasing by peers, tears because friends are going on, and references years later like, "If I had only been able . . . , I would be in 3rd grade now." (Shepard and Smith 1989b).

Various analysts have suggested that kindergarten retention is an educational fad, gaining popularity because of the apparent need to remove unready children from increasingly narrow academic demands in kindergarten and 1st grade. Long periods of seat work, worksheets, and "staying in the lines" are required of children, inconsistent with the normal development of 5- and 6-year-olds. Ironically, retention and holding children out of school, intended to protect them from inappropriate expectations, actually contribute to the escalation of demands, thereby placing more and more children at risk. As kindergartens become populated with 6-year-olds who have had 3 years of preschool, teachers find it difficult to teach to the normal 5-year-olds in the class. The problem can only be solved with more developmentally appropriate curriculum in the early grades and reform of harmful instructional practices, something that many national associations have called for, including the National Association for the Education of Young Children, the National Association of State Boards of Education, the Association for Childhood Education International, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, the International Reading Association, the National Association of Elementary School Principals, and the National Council of Teachers of English. Until this problem of kindergarten retention is addressed on a national scale, educators must deal with its consequences—which will negatively affect the quality of education at every level of schooling.

—Lorrie A. Shepard and Mary Lee Smith

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tive way to individualize instruction since a child may be more than one year behind in some subjects and only a few months behind in others. Because retention itself is considered to be the treatment, there is usually no additional effort to correct the poor quality of teaching and learning that occurred the first time through. In other words, the child may have failed to achieve grade-level standards because the programs or teachers he had were ineffective. Merely repeating the same curriculum or instruction is not likely to fix the problem. If extra money exists to support remediation along with retention, then educators should ask why students can't receive the extra help in the context of their normal grade placement.

The public and many educators find it difficult to give up on retention. To do so seems to mean accepting or condoning shamefully deficient skills for many high school graduates. It is easier for the public to credit research findings that retention harms self-esteem and increases the likelihood of dropping out than to believe the most critical finding—that retention worsens rather than improves the level of student achievement in years following the repeat year. Only with this fact firmly in mind, verified in over 50 controlled studies, does it make sense to subscribe to remediation and other within-grade instructional efforts which have modest but positive evidence of success. Perhaps the futility of flunking students to make them learn would be more obvious if it were recognized that statistically, social promotion has been dead for at least 10 years (i.e., cumulative retention rates are very high). Today's graduates and dropouts are emerging from a system that has imposed fierce non-promotion rates, flunking between 30 and 50 percent of all entering students at least once in their school careers. Strict promotion standards have been enforced for a decade and, as would have been predictable from the retention research findings on achievement, have not appreciably improved the performance of current graduates. Ultimately, hopes for more dramatic improvements in student learning

U.S. school districts spend nearly $10 billion a year to pay for the extra year of schooling necessitated by retaining 2.4 million students.

(than can be expected from promotion plus remediation) will only come from thoroughgoing school changes —more support and opportunities for teachers to work together in addressing the problems of hard-to-teach children (Martin 1988), and curricular reforms designed to engage all children in meaningful learning tasks that provide both the context and the purpose for acquiring basic skills (Resnick 1987).□

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS

ERIC Digest

ESL Through Content-Area Instruction

Prepared by Tarey Reilly

May 1988

This *Digest* is based on the ERIC/CLL *Language in Education* series monograph entitled *ESL Through Content-Area Instruction: Mathematics, Science, Social Studies*, JoAnn Crandall, editor. It is available from Prentice-Hall/Regents for $10.67. To order, write to: Book Distribution Center, Route 59 at Brook Hill Dr., West Nyack, NY 10994 or call: 1-800-223-1360.

ESL and Content-Area Instruction

Content-based ESL is a method that integrates English-as-a-second-language instruction with subject-matter instruction. The technique focuses not only on learning a second language, but on using that language as a medium to learn mathematics, science, social studies, or other academic subjects. Although this approach has been used for many years in adult, professional, and university education programs for foreign students, content-based ESL programs at the elementary and secondary school levels are just emerging. One of the reasons for the increasing interest among educators in developing content-based language instruction is the theory that language acquisition is based on input that is meaningful and understandable to the learner (Krashen, 1981, 1982). Parallels drawn between first and second language acquisition suggest that the kinds of input that children get from their caretakers should serve as a model for teachers in the input they provide to second language learners, regardless of age. Input must be comprehensible to the learner and be offered in such a way as to allow multiple opportunities to understand and use the language. If comprehensible input is provided and the student feels little anxiety, then acquisition will take place.

Krashen posits a dichotomy between acquisition and learning, with one (acquisition) serving to initiate all language and the other (learning) serving only as a monitor or editor, activated when the learner has time and is focusing on the correctness of his or her language. In another dichotomy, Cummins (1979, 1981) has hypothesized two different kinds of language proficiency: basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS), which are language skills used in interpersonal relations or in informal situations; and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP), which is the kind of language proficiency required to make sense of and use academic language in less contextually rich (or more context-reduced) situations. Cummins suggests that BICS are relatively easy to acquire, taking only 1 to 2 years, but that CALP is much more difficult, taking 5 to 7 years and necessitating direct teaching of the language in the academic context.

Many content-based ESL programs have been developed to provide students with an opportunity to learn CALP, as well as to provide a less abrupt transition from the ESL classroom to an all-English-medium academic program. Content-based ESL courses—whether taught by the ESL teacher, the content-area teacher, or some combination—provide direct instruction in the special language of the subject matter, while focusing attention as much or more on the subject matter itself.

Mathematics and ESL

The language of mathematics has its own special vocabulary, syntax (sentence structure), semantic properties (truth conditions), and discourse (text) features. Math texts: (a) lack redundancy and paraphrase, (b) are conceptually packed, (c) are of high density, (d) require up-and-down and left-to-right eye movements, (e) require a slower reading rate than natural language texts, (f) require multiple readings, (g) use a variety of symbols such as charts and graphs, and (h) contain a large number of technical words with precise meanings (Bye, 1975). These language features, when combined with the mathematics content of the written text, require the students to apply mathematics concepts, procedures, and applications they have already learned.

The classroom environment in which ESL is taught through mathematics content should be carefully structured so that second language acquisition can occur. Instructional activities should promote second language development through a natural, subconscious process in which the focus is not on language per se, but on communicating the concepts, processes, and applications of mathematics. Instructional activities in both the ESL and mathematics classroom should be built on students' real-life experiences and prior knowledge of mathematics, and offer situations in which students can interact with the teacher and fellow students. Lessons that teach new concepts in mathematics should use graphics, manipulatives, and other hands-on, concrete materials that clarify and reinforce meanings in mathematics communicated through language. Studies have shown that limited-English-proficient students can acquire both mathematics and English simultaneously when they are involved in interactive activities (Wilson, DeAvila, & Intili, 1982; DeAvila & Duncan, 1984).

Science and ESL

Science is generally defined as a set of concepts and relationships developed through the processes of observation, identification, description, experimental investigation, and theoretical explanation of natural phenomena. Through scientific inquiry, students develop learning processes inherent in

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thinking: observing, classifying, comparing, communicating, measuring, inferring, predicting, and identifying space and time relationships. Current approaches to science and second language education based on research and classroom practice indicate a set of central notions for relating science and ESL. Science inquiry facilitates the development of ESL by providing the following:

- a "sociocognitive conflict" that spurs development of a new language system;
- a source of meaningful and relevant language input, using hands-on materials and texts with extralinguistic devices (diagrams, charts, pictures) to clarify meaning;
- positive affective conditions of high motivation and low anxiety;
- extensive opportunities for small-group interactions in which students negotiate meanings and receive comprehensible language input;
- opportunities for heterogeneous grouping with the role of peer tutor alternating among students, factors that contribute to input, interaction, and a positive, affective climate;
- experience with a wide range of language functions;
- extensive vocabulary development needed for school success;
- the integration of all modalities of language use: listening, speaking, reading, and writing;
- literacy-related tasks for development of cognitive/academic language proficiency; and
- the use of prior cultural and educational experiences for developing new concepts.

Science provides a rich context for genuine language use. From a language acquisition perspective, science can serve as a focal point around which oral language and literacy in ESL can develop. Specifically, science offers:

- interesting, relevant, and challenging content;
- opportunities for students to negotiate meanings;
- an abundance of appropriate language input;
- conditions for keeping students involved;
- materials for development of reading;
- activities for development of writing; and
- experiences with the forms and functions of English.

Social Studies and ESL

An ESL/social studies class should be concerned with more than just historical facts, geography, and terminology. It can promote the development of critical concepts of American history, thereby helping culturally different students to understand their new country, the United States, and its origins. Teachers can use language classes as a means of expanding social studies knowledge as well as use social studies content to enhance language development. Conventional instructional activities may be adapted by teachers not only to enhance LEP students' language development and knowledge of social studies, but to develop their cognitive skills as well. Strategies include:

- *Use of Manipulatives and Multimedia Materials.* Students need visual materials to understand time periods in history; for example, photographs and prints, realia, and filmstrips help students understand ways of life of the Americans living in the colonial period.
- *Language Experiences.* The teacher guides students' spontaneous speech by targeting specific vocabulary structures and concepts from the stories elicited from the students. For example, in an intermediate-level ESL social studies class studying the role of the Constitutional Convention in writing the U.S. Constitution, the concept of reaching compromises to make decisions may be an entirely new idea. The social studies teacher needs to determine whether the students can recall aspects from their own countries' governments that might be similar. If the students do not clearly understand the topic, then the teacher must create an experience that the students can draw from later. For example, the students could role-play various scenes from colonial times, when power was concentrated in the hands of a few. They could represent different interest groups, each arguing to have certain laws passed. With the teacher as facilitator, the students will come to understand that they must give up certain wants if any progress is to be achieved. Once the students have understood the concept of compromise, the teacher can proceed with the lesson on the Constitution and how its laws were created.
- *Semantic Webbing.* Students learn how to perceive relationships and integrate information and concepts within the context of a main idea or topic (Freedman & Reynolds, 1980). Following an oral discussion or reading, students construct web strands and supports by putting key words or phrases in boxes. Boxes are connected to illustrate relationships and subheadings under the main idea, greatly aiding comprehension. For example, the students draw boxes with the events that led to the American Revolutionary War.

Content-area teaching of English as a second language is not an end in itself but a means to an end. The strategies used for LEP students in social studies, mathematics, and science classes equip them with skills that will help them achieve success in the mainstream classroom.

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About the Monograph

ESL Through Content Area Instruction: Mathematics, Science, Social Studies includes an introductory chapter on content-based ESL by volume editor, JoAnn Crandall, as well as the following three subject-specific chapters:

Mathematics—Theresa Corasaniti Dale, Gilberto J. Cuevas
Science—Carolyn Kessler, Mary Ellen Quinn
Social Studies—Melissa King, Barbara Fagan, Terry Bratt, Rod Baer.

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ERIC/CLL News Bulletin

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Adapting Materials for Content-Based Language Instruction

by Deborah J. Short

Language and Content Integration: An Introduction

Language minority students are often enrolled in mainstream classes without either the English language or academic skills needed for successful functioning in these classes. Content-based language programs have emerged, at the elementary and secondary school level, as a way to prepare language minority students for the overall academic demands of mainstream classes. Content-based language instruction is an approach that integrates second language instruction with subject matter instruction. Each lesson in a content-based class has content objectives (e.g., math, science, social studies) and language objectives (e.g., grammar, functions). Students learn language through the context of specific subject matter rather than through isolated language features.

Integrated language and content programs may function in two ways. In language classes, the content-based program provides subject matter for language learning. Students practice the four skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—as they participate in activities that focus on content objectives drawn from science, math, or social studies. The language teachers' primary goal is still to help students develop language competence, but their secondary goals are to introduce terminology, content reading and writing skills, and study skills; and to reinforce content area information taught in other classes. Language teachers are already skilled in methods and techniques for teaching English to limited-English-proficient (LEP) students. However, in order to adopt and implement a content-based program, they need materials and training that will familiarize them with the subject matter to be taught.

An integrated approach can also be used in content classes and is sometimes referred to as *language-sensitive content* or *sheltered instruction*. In this case, teachers adapt their instructional techniques to meet the needs of LEP students, for whom traditional approaches may not be appropriate. Demonstrations, manipulatives, discovery learning, and other student-centered techniques may all be used to help reduce reliance on oral language, which is often difficult for LEP students to follow. The problem is more complex for written materials, because standard textbooks are rarely written with the language minority reader in mind.

Both language and content classes also promote the development and nurturing of cognitive thinking skills. By using student-centered activities that require students to interact with content, teachers provide opportunities for such thinking skills as analysis, synthesis, and clarification. These skills are essential in mainstream classes.

There is a growing consensus among language educators that the academic progress of LEP students should not be delayed by deferring content area instruction until students are proficient in English. But if students are to participate in content classes, they will need to have academic language preparation in their ESL classes to serve as a bridge to participation in regular content classes. An integrated approach helps prepare students for mainstream classes by incorporating subject matter instruction at the start of LEP students' schooling and increasing the complexity of this instruction as the students' language proficiency improves. As students are also placed in language-sensitive content classes, the delay of academic progress is further diminished. In addition, by providing the opportunity for these students to study content areas, teachers can recognize those students with special talents in one discipline or another.

For the approach to work, however, cooperation between language teachers and content teach-

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About the Author

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ers is essential. Program planning and in-service teacher-training workshops can help achieve collaboration and provide opportunities to develop curricula and materials and share expertise for both teachers and school administrators.

Unfortunately, there are few textbooks that integrate language and content, and fewer still that address different levels of language proficiency. The dearth of materials is a common cause of frustration for teachers attempting to integrate instruction. Teachers must create or adapt their own materials, but adaptation may be an unfamiliar process for many teachers, and a time-consuming process for all. The following specific guidelines for materials adaptation can serve as a reference, and facilitate the teacher's task of adaptation.

Materials Adaptation

When teachers are asked to describe the process of adapting materials, they often focus on vocabulary. They suggest replacing words with simpler synonyms or defining terms at the beginning of a reading passage. Some teachers will also point to sentence length and suggest writing shorter statements. At least one teacher in a group will likely voice concern about "watered-down" materials. "When I simplify materials, I lose the substance," that teacher might say. This may indeed occur, but it need not.

Successful materials adaptation goes far beyond simplifying vocabulary and shortening sentences and avoids watering down essential information. Materials adaptation is not rewriting prose at a lower grade level, but adapting information to make it accessible to language minority students. Certainly, one of the end goals of the content-based approach is to develop students' ability to read standard textbooks, reference materials, and news articles; but many limited-English-proficient students find prose passages very threatening at the start. The visual presentation of information is, therefore, key to adaptation.

Pictures, charts, and timelines make materials more "user friendly." A series of pictures or a flow chart can convey a process to a student more rapidly than a paragraph or two filled with transitional adverbs and complex-compound sentences. Through comprehensible chunks of words and phrases, an outline can concisely convey essential information drawn from a passage. Timelines can subtly encourage the higher-order thinking skill of sequencing, whereas charts exercise the skill of comparing and contrasting. Formats such as these highlight specific points and diminish extraneous information.

While adapting or creating, teachers have the opportunity to use authentic materials in an abridged form. News articles may be adapted; post office or banking transactions may be taped and used as listening exercises; authentic literature may be included in the lessons. Teachers, having greater control over the content and being sensitive to the cross-cultural differences among students, can adapt materials to meet the students' level of cultural and linguistic understanding.

It may be useful here to review an original passage and its adaptation, and then look at specific considerations for adapting materials. The original text, *United States History 1600 - 1987*, distributed by the US Immigration and Naturalization Service to applicants seeking citizenship, was recently adapted for limited English speakers. The following two paragraphs are taken from a chapter in the original text on the first two permanent colonies in North America.

Virginia

The first permanent colony was Jamestown, Virginia (1607). These colonists came from England to try to make money by trading with Europe. They believed they would find gold and silver as the Spanish had found in South America, and then they would be rich. When they got to Jamestown, most of the men tried to find gold. They did not want to do the difficult jobs of building, planting food crops and cutting firewood. One of the colonists, John Smith, saw how dangerous this could be. He took charge and made everyone work to survive. He is remembered for his good practical leadership. Still, less than half of the colonists survived the first few years. Only new settlers and supplies from England made it possible for the colony to survive. The discovery of tobacco as a cash crop to be traded in Europe guaranteed that the colony would do well.

Massachusetts

Many of the colonists came to America to try to find religious freedom. The Catholics had troubles in England and other parts of Europe. The rulers of these countries told their citizens that they must go to a specific church and worship in a certain way. Some people believed differently than their rulers and wanted to have their own churches. The first group to come to America for religious freedom was the **Pilgrims** in 1620. They sailed across the ocean in the *Mayflower* and landed at Plymouth, Massachusetts. Before landing at Plymouth, the Pilgrims agreed on the government they wanted. The agreement was called the **Mayflower Compact**. It had two important **principles:**

- the people would vote about the government and laws; and,
- the people would accept whatever the **majority** chose. [1]

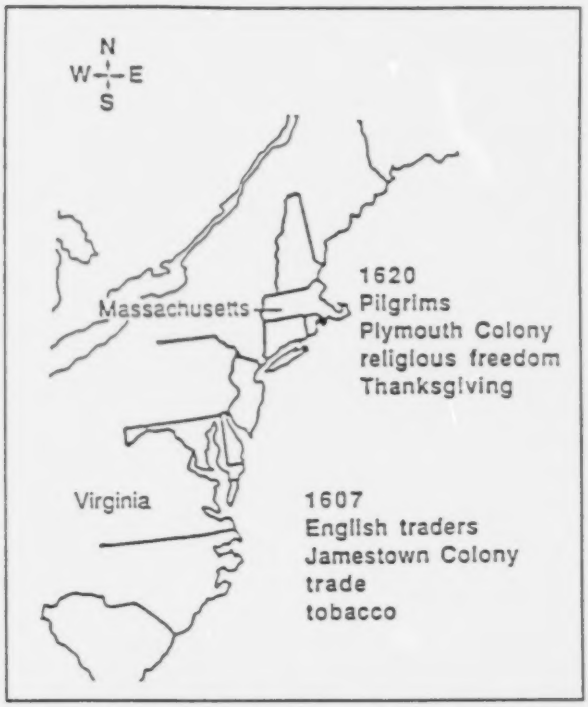
For a beginning or intermediate language learner, these passages are full of pitfalls. For instance, an immigrant to California, who has been in the United States for only a few weeks, may have no knowledge of the location of Massachusetts and Virginia. That same immigrant may not recognize that England is part of Europe, nor that the Pilgrims were not Catholic. The syntactic and semantic structures of the passage may also pose problems: less common verb tenses (e.g., had found, to be traded), temporal and relative clauses, indirect speech, and complex lexical words and phrases (e.g., less than half of, whatever).

The following is an adaptation of the passage

developed for advanced beginning-level students.

The First Two Colonies

This map shows the first two permanent English colonies in North America.[2]



This layout, which uses a map and highlights the information about each colony in a comparable manner, offers limited-English-proficient students access to the pertinent details of the passage. The map places the colony names in context. The inclusion of the compass symbol can lead to a class activity on map skills. The information is structured to explain:

- when the colonies were formed;
- who the colonists were;
- what the colonies were named;
- why the colonies were formed; and,
- an interesting fact about each colony.

Information has been conveyed through a pictorial representation (the map) with chunks of information that can be processed more easily than sentences. Teachers can use this adaptation as the basis of a lesson, and build upon the information as appropriate to the proficiency level of their students. Although Thanksgiving was not mentioned in the original text, it was included as an interesting fact about Plymouth Colony so that teachers could expand the cross-cultural awareness of students in discussions about that holiday.

Both language and social studies teachers could use this adaptation in the classroom. Language teachers may ask students to use the information to write sentences comparing the two colonies, or they may encourage predictions about the seasons according to the different latitudes of the colonies. Social studies teachers may expand on this material by having groups of students research one of the colonies in more detail. Because the students will have already been presented with this background information, they have a schema upon which to add and link more facts and impressions.

Steps in Adapting Materials

The above illustration is one example of adapting an original text passage. There are a number of steps for teachers to follow in adapting materials. Many of these are described in *How To Integrate Language and Content: A Training Manual* (Short, et al., 1989).

Consider the students' proficiency level. The first step in materials adaptation requires a teacher to consider the proficiency level of the students and then review possible formats for the presentation of information. Does the information to be presented lend itself to a graph, chart, outline, or simplified prose version? Pictures, diagrams, and graphs are suitable as introductory formats because they tend to be labeled with fewer words. Outlines, timelines, charts, and prose versions will offer more of a challenge. Overall, it is best to vary the format of the presentation. Exposing students to different formats will help cater to different learning styles and to relieve boredom.

Build on students' prior knowledge. The second step involves the teachers' moving from the known to the unknown, and from the concrete to the abstract, while relating materials, as much as possible, to student experiences. For instance, in the example above, the map depicting the eastern coast of the United States and the Atlantic ocean is a familiar sight for most students; it immediately places Massachusetts and Virginia in context. To relate materials to personal experiences of the students, teachers can initiate conversation about the colonists' reasons for coming to America —religious freedom and trade— and then lead into a class discussion in which students explain their own reasons for coming to the United States.

Highlight specific text. As teachers begin adapting written material, they should try to reduce the amount of text. Main points should be highlighted, and extraneous detail can be excluded. During the course of a lesson, though, teachers may insert details if students express interest in the subject. By using bold typeface, underlining, and italics, teachers can provide visual clues that point to the main idea and the supporting facts.

Control new vocabulary. When teachers adapt materials, they can control vocabulary. For this process, teachers should follow certain recommendations. Vocabulary can be simplified, but key technical terms must be retained. Students are being prepared for mainstream classes, so they need to learn the academic language that accompanies the content area subjects. The use of synonyms should be minimized to avoid confusing students who are trying to grasp the essence of the prose. The language in mathematics classes, where synonyms abound in word problems, may be prob-

continued on p. 6

lematic. For example, the operation of subtraction may be referred to in more than ten ways in simple word problems (e.g., subtracted from, decreased by, diminished by, less than, etc.). Teachers should wait for the students to master the mathematical concepts before introducing synonymous terms. Finally, new vocabulary should be clearly introduced (and, where possible, explained before a reading—unless the purpose of the activity is for students to discover vocabulary meaning in context) and reinforced within the adaptation and subsequent materials.

Simplify grammar. At the start, teachers should use simple verb tenses, such as present, present continuous, simple past, and simple future. Commands (imperative verb forms) are appropriate for asking students to perform an experiment or discovery exercise. Teachers should simplify word order in sentences by eliminating clauses and relying on the common subject-verb-object format. They should also write in the active voice, and limit the use of pronouns and relative clauses. By repeating the subject noun or breaking the *who* and *which* into separate sentences, teachers write straightforward prose that facilitates student comprehension. Similar care should be taken with negations. Students learn the *verb + not* structure fairly quickly, but are often confused by *hardly, no longer,* and *no more.*

Structure paragraphs carefully. If teachers plan to adapt material in prose form with paragraphs, they must remember certain points. The topic sentence should appear first. Students can then recognize the main idea of the paragraph and learn to look for supporting information in the following sentences. Also, key features of the text that guide the flow of information should be maintained. Terms such as *first, next,* and *then,* indicate sequence; *but* indicates contrast; *because* can indicate cause and effect. As students develop higher-order cognitive skills, they learn to recognize these markers.

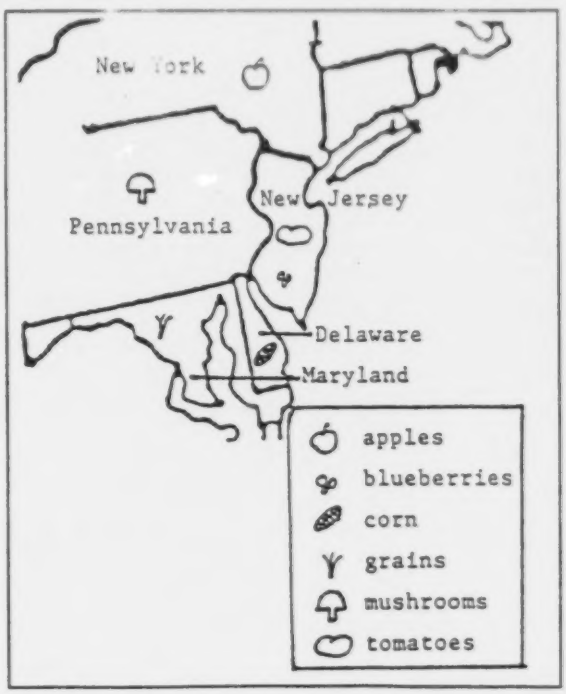
Sample Adaptations

Following is a passage from a fifth-grade social studies book that has been adapted three ways for different proficiency levels and activities. (For additional activity suggestions with adapted materials, see Brinton et al., 1989.)

The following is the original version from *The United States Yesterday and Today*:

> **Agriculture**- Farmers in the Middle Atlantic States grow many kinds of crops. In much of the region, the soil is fertile, or rich, in the things plants need for growth. There is usually plenty of sunshine and rain. Each state has become famous for certain crops. New York is well-known for apples. New Jersey tomatoes and blueberries, Delaware white sweet corn, Pennsylvania mushrooms, and Maryland grains are other well-known crops. Herds of dairy cattle and livestock for meat are also raised in the Middle Atlantic States. The region produces a great deal of food for the millions of people who live there.
>
> **Truck Farms**- New Jersey is famous for its truck farms, which grow large amounts of many different vegetables for sale. **Truck farms** usually sell their products to businesses in a nearby city. New Jersey truck farms are the best known, but truck farms are found in all the Middle Atlantic States.
>
> Another way truck farmers sell their crops is at **farmers' markets** in cities. Sometimes a farmers' market is outside, on the street or in a city park. A market may be in a railroad station or in the lobby of a skyscraper. At a farmers' market, city people and farmers can meet each other face-to-face.[3]

In the first adaptation that follows, teachers focus on map skills. Students learn about the well-known crops for each state and how to read a key. This adaptation is suitable for beginning-level students because it is largely pictorial. It can also lead to a class discussion or a simple writing exercise.



In the second adaptation, teachers create an outline of the passage. This can be used with lower-intermediate-level students. Teachers may have groups of students use the outline as a basis for writing sentences or paragraphs. They may also use this as a cloze exercise with more advanced students who can read the original passage. By filling in blanks on the outline, students practice study skills as they read the text.

Middle Atlantic States

I. Agriculture
- A. Many kinds of food crops
- B. State crops
  1. New York - apples
  2. New Jersey - tomatoes, blueberries
  3. Delaware - corn
  4. Pennsylvania - mushrooms
  5. Maryland - grains
- C. Cows for milk and meat

II. Truck Farms
- A. Many truck farms in New Jersey
- B. Sell vegetables to stores in a city

III. Farmers' Markets
- A. Farmers sell crops in the city
  1. On a street
  2. In a park
  3. In a train station
  4. In a building
- B. Farmers and city people meet

The third adaptation is a rewritten version of the prose. It may be used in a lesson for intermediate-level students. The students may be asked to respond to comprehension questions or to write their own outline about this paragraph. They may also be asked to create a key for a map of the Middle Atlantic States. A dictation or listening cloze could be based on this passage. These paragraphs provide only an overview, but they could be the basis for more detailed group reports about agriculture in these states.

Agriculture in the Middle Atlantic States

Farmers grow many foods, or **crops**, in the Middle Atlantic States. The soil is good for plants. The plants have enough sunshine and rain to grow. Each state has one or two special crops:

New York - apples,
New Jersey - tomatoes and blueberries,
Delaware - corn,
Pennsylvania - mushrooms,
Maryland - grains.

The farmers also raise cows. They get milk from some cows. They get meat from other cows.

New Jersey has many **truck farms**. The farmers grow a lot of vegetables. They bring the vegetables to the city by truck. They sell the vegetables to stores in the city.

Farmers also sell their crops at **farmers' markets**. Some markets are outside. They can be on streets or in city parks. Other markets are inside. They can be in train stations or in buildings. City people and farmers can meet each other at the markets.

Benefits of Materials Adaptations

There are many benefits of using adapted materials. The first is teacher control over content. Teachers can adjust both language and format to the proficiency level of their students. A second benefit is teacher control over cultural bias in materials. Teachers can eliminate language that assumes a particular cultural background, control the introduction of new cultural information, and relate content to the students' native culture.

A third benefit is teacher control over skills development. Teachers can provide a wealth of skill-development exercises. Students can practice transferring information, using one basic language skill and then another. For example, after reading a graph, or looking at a series of pictures, students can retell the information orally or in writing. In this way, they exercise more than one language skill. Timelines and charts lend themselves to information-gap activities[4] and other listening activities. Study skills are honed when students take notes, draw diagrams, or make outlines, charts, or graphs from prose adaptations.

In addition, by using adapted materials, teachers can help students develop the cognitive academic skills required in mainstream classes. Charts can be used to explain the rhetorical styles of cause and effect, or comparison and contrast. Timelines can be used to encourage students to make predictions or hypotheses. Further, by reducing prose to a skeleton of salient points, teachers require students to analyze information, draw inferences, and reword information. This process tests and encourages development of students' higher-order thinking skills.

Finally, by adapting materials, teachers can readily integrate language and content. They can focus on the particular needs of their own students and use their own curriculum. When language teachers and content teachers collaborate, they plan their instruction to reinforce the information presented in other classes. This careful pairing of language and content better prepares language minority students for academic mainstream classes.

◆◆◆

Notes

1. Immigration and Naturalization Service, US Department of Justice. (1987). *United States History 1600-1987*. (p.6). Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.
2. Short, D., Seufert-Bosco, M., & Grognet, A. (forthcoming). *Of the people: U.S. history*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents/Center for Applied Linguistics.
3. From *The United States yesterday and today*. © 1988 Silver, Burdett & Ginn Inc. All rights reserved. Used with permission. (Boldface words indicate vocabulary highlighted in the original.)
4. In an information-gap activity, a student with some information works with a partner with complementary information to complete a timeline, chart, map, etc.

see references p. 8

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ERIC Digest

Children's Writing in ESL

Prepared by Sarah Hudelson *December 1988*

This *Digest* is based on the ERIC/CLL *Language in Education* series monograph entitled *WRITE ON: Children Writing in ESL*, written by Sarah Hudelson. The monograph describes how children develop as writers in English as a second language. It will be available in early 1989 from Prentice Hall Regents, Mail Order Processing, 200 Old Tappan Road, Old Tappan, NJ 07675, or by calling 1-201-767-5937.

Children whose native language is not English are present in ever increasing numbers in elementary schools in the United States. Educators, therefore, must provide opportunities for these learners to develop English-as-a-second-language (ESL) skills and to learn school content-area material. In elementary schools, particular emphasis has recently been placed on helping ESL learners become more proficient writers of English to ensure their academic success in English language classrooms (Allen, 1986; Rigg and Enright, 1986; Urzua, 1987).

What Do We Mean By "Writing"?

For the purpose of this discussion, writing is defined as the creation of original text using the individual's intellectual and linguistic resources, rather than copying someone else's text, using a prepared list of words to create sentences or stories, filling in the blanks, or practicing handwriting.

What Do We Know About How ESL Children Develop as Writers?

In the last fifteen to twenty years, elementary education researchers and educators have learned a tremendous amount about children's native language writing development. Examinations have revealed that, from early childhood, children work to make sense of written language. Children make predictions about how written language works and create texts based on these predictions. As the child's understanding of and predictions about written language change, so do the child's texts (Bissex, 1980; Harste, Woodward, and Burke, 1984). The perception of the child as creator has been confirmed in studies of classrooms in which writing has been taught as a process of drafting and revising (Calkins, 1986; Graves, 1983).

Studies of the writing development of native speakers influenced other researchers to investigate the writing development of second language learners. The most general conclusion these examinations have reached is that the process of writing is similar for first and second language learners. More specifically, the following conclusions may be made about ESL children's writing development (Edelsky, 1986; Hudelson, 1986, 1987; Samway, 1987; Urzua, 1987):

(1) ESL learners, while they are still learning English, can write; they can create their own meaning.
(2) ESL learners can respond to the works of others and can use another learner's responses to their work to make substantive revisions in their creations.
(3) Texts produced by ESL writers look very much like those produced by young native speakers. These texts demonstrate that the writers are making predictions about how the written language works. As the writers' predictions change, the texts change.
(4) Children approach writing and develop as writers differently from one another.
(5) The classroom environment has a significant impact on ESL children's development as writers.
(6) Culture may affect the writers' view of writing, of the functions or purposes for writing, and of themselves as writers.
(7) The ability to write in the native language facilitates the child's ESL writing in several different ways. Native language writing provides learners with information about the purposes of writing. Writing ability in the native language provides second language learners with both linguistic and nonlinguistic resources that they can use as they approach second language writing. In addition, second language learners apply the knowledge about writing gained in first language settings to second language settings.

What Should Schools Do To Promote ESL Children's Writing?

Children develop as writers when they use writing to carry out activities that are meaningful to them. Teachers need to provide time for writing on a regular basis; they need to encourage ESL children to write; they need to promote writing by responding to the content of the text rather than to the form; and they need to provide multiple opportunities for writers to engage in writing for reasons that are real and important to the individual writer.

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Suggestions for specific classroom activities include the following:

- Use diaries or journals to promote fluency in writing and to help students see writing as one means of self-expression (Kreeft et al., 1984).
- Utilize personal narratives and writing workshop techniques to help learners become comfortable with the craft of drafting, sharing, and revising their pieces (Samway, 1987; Urzua, 1987).
- Make the reading-writing connection by exposing ESL learners to a wide variety of literary forms in reading and then provide opportunities for learners to construct their own forms to share with others (Allen, 1986; Flores et al., 1985).
- Incorporate various writing activities into content-area units so that ESL learners will experience the kinds of writing that will be expected in disciplines across the curriculum.

How Should ESL Children's Writing Be Assessed?

Assessments are important to the learners themselves, to their parents, to teachers, and to educators beyond the classroom or building level. Therefore, it seems important to advocate and promote assessment based, as much as possible, on daily classroom activity, that is, based on the observation and documentation of what children are doing in authentic writing situations in their own classrooms (Genishi & Dyson, 1984; Graves, 1983).

Classroom-based assessment may take many forms. Learners' progress may be documented through a systematic collection of children's work in writing folders, and checklists and anecdotal records may be used to note and analyze changes in writing over time. Teachers may carry out periodic observations of individual children, recording the individual child's writing behaviors and strategies within the context of the classroom. Children themselves may be asked to compare samples of their writing so that they may comment on their own progress.

At the school or district level, writing competence should be evaluated using holistic assessments of writing samples rather than standardized tests (Myers, 1980). Such assessments of actual writing come closer to reflecting the changes in teaching practices that are being advocated for both native speakers and ESL learners.

Resources

TESOL, Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, has an Interest Section (IS) devoted to ESOL in the elementary schools (ESOL in Elementary Education). Members of TESOL may elect to receive the IS newsletter that provides many practical tips about ESL children's language development.

The National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education provides computerized searches on topics such as ESL literacy development, and a Teacher Resource Guide Series that includes titles on second language literacy.

The ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics provides computerized searches on topics related to this *Digest* and is publishing a monograph by Sarah Hudelson on ESL children's writing development. The title of the monograph is *WRITE ON: Children Writing in ESL*; it will be released in early 1989.

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CLEAR

Q&A Dialogue Journal Writing with Limited-English-Proficient (LEP) Students

Prepared by Joy Kreeft Peyton

April, 1987

All teachers would like to have more time to communicate with their students, to learn about their backgrounds, interests and needs. The need to communicate is intensified with students learning English as a second language (ESL). At a minimum, they bring to school a different language and cultural background. They may also be non-literate in their native language, have had little or no schooling in their own countries, and possibly have suffered considerable trauma as they left their country to come to the United States. If they are new arrivals to the United States, they are adjusting to an entirely new way of life as they learn the language and begin to function in school. It is with these students that communication, on a one-to-one basis, is crucial--not only to help them adjust, but to help the teacher understand them and address their special needs.

Many teachers of such students--both in the mainstream and ESL classroom--have found "dialogue journals," interactive writing on an individual basis, to be a crucial part of their teaching. Dialogue journals not only open a channel of communication not previously possible, but they also provide a context for language and writing development. Students have the opportunity to use English in a non-threatening atmosphere, in interaction with a proficient English speaker. Because the interaction is written, it allows students to use reading and writing in purposeful ways and provides a natural, comfortable bridge to other kinds of writing that are done in school.

What Is A Dialogue Journal?

A dialogue journal is a written conversation in which a student and teacher communicate regularly--daily, if possible, or at least two or three times a week--over a period of one semester or an entire school year. Students may write as much as they choose on any topic and the teacher writes back regularly to each student (each time they write, if possible)--often responding to the student's topics, but also introducing new topics; making comments and offering observations and opinions; requesting and giving clarification; asking questions and answering student questions. The teacher's role is as a participant *with* the student in an ongoing, written conversation, rather than as an evaluator who corrects or comments on the writing.

The following examples, excerpted from the dialogue journal entries of two sixth graders from El Salvador and the Philippines in a mainstream class of LEP students, illustrate the nature of the writing:

March 17

Claudia: The new teacher or helper in our class is very good. I like her, don't you like her? Today she helped me and us a lot. But Tony didn't want help. Why doesn't Tony want us to help him?

I will try & bring my lunch every day from now on because the turkey stew & other lunches put me sick. I hate them. When I am very hungry I have to eat them but when I get to my house my stomach hurts & I am sick for 3 days. Can't the teachers protest or say something about the food that they give here?

What do you feed chickens here? We have a hen that layd an egg.

Teacher: The lunches are not that bad! I've eaten them sometimes. You are wise to bring your own lunch. That is usually what I do, too. You have such good food at home that nothing served here could taste so good!

Tony is embarrassed. He wants help, but he does not want anyone to know that he needs it. Offer to help him and if he says "no" then leave him alone.

Chickens will eat scraps of bread, wheat, seeds, water and some insects.

March 18

Claudia: but the hen has wat it looks like worms, do you know how to get the hen of her stomach sickness or is it usual for her to be like that because she is laying eggs and she could even lay 30 eggs so I do not know if it is usual or if it is a sickness of her.

oh poor hen she cooks & cooks when I say pretty hen in a low low voice & she looks like she is used to children because she is cook & cooking when I say pretty things, oh she's so nice.

Teacher: I've never heard of a hen having worms--but it is possible. Go to a pet shop or to a veterinarian and ask them. Who gave you the hen? Maybe they will know.

We say that a hen clucks. It is a pleasant little sound as though they are happy. They cackle when they lay an egg! That is usually loud! Does your hen cackle?

I think hens like having people or other hens around, don't you?

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April 7

Ben: I got a chance to look at all those weird bones. They're weird because I usually see them with their skin, bones, and hair and with their eyes or eyeballs. Where did you get all of those bones? Did you got them from the desserts? I feel sorry for the turtles or the animals that lived in the deserts and got run over by those cruel men and women...I like and loved tamed animals.

Teacher: Yes, I've collected the bones, and my children, as they've grown up, have found and brought me bones because they know I like to use them in teaching. Have you looked at the teeth? Some come to a sharp point and some are very flat with ridges on the top. All animals die--and if their bones are uneaten the sun and wind and rain clean and dry them out. So many of those animals may have died a natural death.

Through dialogue journals, students write about topics that are important to them as they occur in their lives, and explore them in the written genre that is appropriate. They are not constrained by teacher- or curriculum-established topics or by a pre-set schedule of topics and genres that must be covered in sequence. Sometimes their concerns and interests are personal, as in Claudia's complaint about the food at school. Likewise, journal entries may relate to material covered in school, as in Ben's entry. At other times, activities and interests at home generate the opportunity for learning in the journal, as occurred through Claudia's discussion of her chickens. Students may write descriptions, explanations, narratives, complaints, or arguments with supporting details, as the topic and communicative purpose dictate. Entries may be as brief as a few sentences, or they may extend for several pages. Topics may be introduced briefly and dropped, or discussed and elaborated on by teacher and student together for several days.

Because the teacher is attempting above all to communicate with the student, his or her writing is roughly tuned to the student's language proficiency level. Just as they learn over time to adjust to each student's level of understanding in speech, teachers can easily become competent at varying their language in a dialogue journal to individual students to ensure comprehension (Kreeft, Shuy, Staton, Reed and Morroy, 1984). For example, in the exchange below from the dialogue journal of a student in the early stages of learning English, the teacher uses relatively simple syntax and words the student knows or has used in her entry. The same teacher's entry to Ben, above, is linguistically much more complex.

Laura: Today I am so happy because yesterday my father sad he was going to by a new washengmashin [washing machine] then yesterday he came with a new car a beg new car is a Honda and she has the radio. Leticia like to talk abowt me yesterday she sad every thing abowt my diat to the boy I danth like that.

Teacher: How nice! A new car! What color is it? Did you take a ride in the new car?

I'm sure Leticia did not think when she told the boys about your diet! She is so thin she does not need to think about a diet so she does not understand how you feel. Tell her!

An essential characteristic of dialogue journal writing is the lack of overt error correction. The teacher has sufficient opportunities to correct errors on other assignments; thus, the dialogue journal is one place where students may write freely, without focusing on form. The teacher's response in the journal serves instead as a model of correct English usage in the context of the dialogue. The teacher can, however, take note of error patterns found in the journals and use them as the basis for later lessons in class. Sometimes the same structures that the student has attempted to use are modeled by the teacher and more details added, as in this example:

Michael: today morning you said this is my lovely friends right? She told me about book story name is "the lady first in the air." She tell me this lady was first in the air, and she is flying in the Pacific ocean, and she lose it everybody find her but they can't find it. They looked in the ocean still not here. Did she know everything of book?

Teacher: My lovely friend Mrs. P reads a lot. She has read the book about Amelia Earhart. It is a good story and it is a true story. They looked and looked but they never found her airplane or her. [Emphasis added.]

This example very clearly demonstrates teacher modeling. In most cases, such direct modeling of particular structures and vocabulary is neither possible nor desirable, for the journals would become stilted and unnatural. More often, modeling takes the form of correct English usage by the teacher, stated roughly at the student's level of ability, and related to something the student has written about, such as in the interchange with Laura cited above.

What Are The Benefits to Students and Teachers?

Many teachers, from early elementary grades through adult education, use dialogue journals to extend contact time with their students and to get to know them in a way that may not be possible otherwise. Through the medium of the journals, they may discuss the student's native culture and language, problems in adjusting to the new culture and to school rules and procedures, and personal and academic interests. This information not only builds strong personal ties, but also gives students individualized access to a competent, adult member of the new language and culture. Through this relationship the student has the opportunity to reflect on new experiences and emerging knowledge and to think through with an adult ideas, problems and important choices (Staton, 1984b).

There are also benefits related to the management of a classroom with students of varying language and ability levels. All students, no matter what their language proficiency level, can participate in the activity to some extent. In classes composed of students with a range of ability levels, or into which students newly-arrived from other countries are enrolled throughout the school year, dialogue journals afford the immediate opportunity of participation in an important class

activity. Since students' dialogue journal entries give continual feedback about what they understand in class as well as their language progress, the teacher receives information that leads to individualized instruction for each student, beginning through advanced.

Another major benefit has been observed in the areas of language acquisition and writing development. Dialogue journal interactions provide optimal conditions for language acquisition, both oral and written (Kreeft, 1984a, 1986; Staton, 1984a). For example, they focus on meaning rather than on form, and on real topics and issues of interest to the learner. The teacher's written language serves as input that is modified to, but slightly beyond, the learner's proficiency level; thus, the teacher's entries provide reading texts that may be even more complex and advanced than the student's assigned texts (Staton, 1986), but which are comprehensible because they relate to what the student has written. Beyond the modeling of language form and structure, the teacher's writing also provides continual exposure to the thought, style and manner of expression of a proficient English writer. As students continue to write, and read the teacher's writing, they develop confidence in their own ability to express themselves in writing. Teachers using dialogue journals report that their students' writing becomes more fluent, interesting, and correct over time, and that writing ability developed in dialogue journals transfers to other in-class writing as well (Hayes and Bahruth, 1985; Hayes, Bahruth and Kessler, 1986).

How Much Time Is Involved?

The single drawback of dialogue journals is the considerable teacher time required to read and respond to student entries. However, those teachers who have been successful with dialogue journals report that the time is well spent, for the knowledge they gain about students' interests and problems and the feedback they receive about the activities and lessons of the day serve as the basis for future planning. They have also found ways to make the process more manageable. For example, teachers with many classes and students (especially at the secondary level), sometimes choose to keep journals with only one or two classes, or have students write two or three times per week, rather than daily.

Can Dialogue Journals Be Used with All Students?

Yes. Dialogue journals were first used successfully with sixth grade students, both native and nonnative English speakers (Kreeft, et al., 1984; Staton, 1980; Staton, Shuy, Kreeft Peyton, and Reed, 1987). They are now being used with ESL students, from elementary grades through the university (Gutstein, Meloni, Harmatz, Kreeft and Batterman, 1983); with adult ESL students who are non- or semi-literate in their native languages (Hester, 1986); with migrant children and youths (Davis, 1983; Hayes and Bahruth, 1985; Hayes et al., 1986); with hearing-impaired children (Bailes, Searls, Slobodzian and Staton, 1986) and adults (Walworth, 1985); and with mentally handicapped teenagers and adults (Farley, 1986; Kreeft Peyton and Steinberg, 1985).

With non-literate students, there should be no initial pressure to write. Students can begin by drawing pictures, with the teacher drawing pictures in reply and perhaps writing a few words underneath or labeling the pictures. The move to letters and words can be made when students feel ready. At beginning levels, the interaction may be more valuable as a reading event, with more emphasis placed on reading the teacher's entry than on writing one. In classes where native language literacy is the focus, it is possible to conduct the dialogue journal interaction in the students' native language. The move to English can occur in line with course objectives or student readiness.

Dialogue journals need not be limited to language arts or ESL classes. In content classes--science, social studies, literature, and even math--they encourage reflection on and processing of concepts presented in class and in readings (Atwell, 1984), and because they bridge the gap between spoken and written language, they can be a way to promote abilities needed for composition (Kreeft, 1984b; Shuy, 1987).

How Do You Get Started?

- Each student should have a bound and easily portable notebook, used only for this purpose. Paperbound composition books that are large enough to allow sufficient writing and small enough for the teacher to carry home after class are best. A student may fill several notebooks during a term.
- The writing must be done regularly, but the frequency can be flexible, depending on the number of students in a class, the length of the class, the teacher's schedule, and the needs of the teacher and students.
- Most teachers prefer to give their students time to write during the class session. This time may be scheduled at the beginning of a class as a warm-up, at the end as a wind-down, or before or after a break as a transition time. Likewise, the teacher may allow the students to choose a time for making journal entries. Ten or fifteen minutes is usually adequate to read the teacher's entry and write a new one. Teachers usually respond outside class time.
- In the beginning stages, it seems desirable to set a minimum amount that students must write each time (such as three sentences), but the amount of writing beyond that should be up to each student. Students should understand, however, that long, polished pieces are not required.
- When introducing the idea of dialogue journals, the teacher should inform students that they will be participating in a continuing, private, written conversation, that they may write on any topic, and that the teacher will write back each time without correcting errors. The mechanics of when they will write, when the journals will be turned in, when they will be returned, etc., should be explained. When students are unable to think of something to write, the teacher might suggest one or two possible topics. It is important that everyone has something to write and that they feel comfortable with it.

• It is important that the teacher enter into the journal interaction as a good conversationalist and an interesting writer, and expect students to do the same. The goal is to be responsive to student topics and ask questions about them at times, but also to introduce topics and write about oneself and one's own interests and concerns. Teacher entries that simply echo what the student wrote or that ask a lot of questions (typical "teacher talk") can stifle rather than promote interaction.

• Finally, the teacher should relax and enjoy the writing! For many teachers, reading and writing in dialogue journals is the best part of the day--a wonderful time to reflect on the past day's work, to find out about the people with whom they are spending the semester or year, and to think about where their work together is taking them.

Resources

Dialogue, a newsletter about dialogue journal research and practice, is available from the Center for Language Education and Research (CLEAR), Center for Applied Linguistics, 1118 22nd Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20037. Cost per year of a subscription to *Dialogue* is $6 for 3 issues. A volume of back issues, which contains newsletters from the past four years, a history of dialogue journals, a publications list, and abstracts of dissertations written about dialogue journals, is also available from CLEAR for $7. [Checks should be made payable to Handbook Press.]

The only teacher handbook available to date is *It's Your Turn Now: A Handbook for Teachers of Deaf Students*, by Cindy Bailes, Susan Searls, Jean Slobodzian and Jana Staton (1986). Write the Gallaudet Pre-College Outreach Program, Washington, DC 20002 for a copy.

A handbook for teachers of limited-English-proficient students will soon be available from CLEAR.

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ERIC Digest

Teaching Mathematics to Limited English Proficient Students

Prepared by Deborah J. Short and George Spanos

November 1989

At an in-service workshop on content-based instruction, the facilitator presents an exercise designed to increase awareness of the difficulties encountered in learning mathematics in a second language. The participants are instructed to solve the following word problem in a language with which they have little or no familiarity (French), and to think about some questions that focus on factors involved in problem solving.

> *Jean et André sont frères. Jean est l'aîné. Les deux vont au lycée qui se trouve à moins de cinq kilomètres de leur maison à Paris. Bien qu'il y ait une différence d'âge de trois ans entre les deux frères, leurs niveaux scolaires ne sont séparés que par deux années. Jean est en quatrième. En quelle classe est André?*
>
> 1) What are the language difficulties in this problem?
> 2) What are some math difficulties in this problem?
> 3) What are some extra-linguistic features that could cause difficulty in solving this problem?

The participants study the problem and try to answer the questions. They begin to realize the difficulties word problems may pose for nonnative-speaking students. The facilitator lists some possible language difficulties:

> difficult lexical items, such as *aîné, niveaux, ait;*
> comparative terms or structures, such as *aîné,* and *moins de;*
> grammar structures with relative and subordinate clauses, such as *qui se trouve à, bien qu'il y ait.*

Before announcing the solution, the facilitator distributes an English version of the problem that simulates a student's word-for-word attempt at translating it.

> *Jean and Andre are brothers. Jean is older. The two go to a school which is found less than five kilometers from their home in Paris. Although there is a difference in age of three years between the two brothers, their grade levels are only two years apart. Jean is in the fourth. What class is Andre in?*

The group discovers some potential math pitfalls in the wording of the problem. There is extraneous information—unnecessary numbers (*five kilometers, three years*)—and a mixture of cardinal (*two, three*) and ordinal (*fourth*) numbers.

The facilitator then gives the answer: Andre is in the 6th grade at school. You are surprised. You had concluded that Andre was in second grade. After all, 4 - 2 = 2. In response to challenges by participants, the facilitator directs attention to question number 3 on the worksheet.

The facilitator explains that simply knowing the language of instruction and the required math skills may not be sufficient for solving problems. Cultural issues may be present as well. In this problem, one needs to know that the French educational system counts the grade levels in secondary school from 6th (youngest) to 1st (oldest). A teacher must be careful not to assume that all students have the same background knowledge.

The Need for Language-Sensitive Content Instruction

The preceding example suggests the desirability of instruction that is sensitive to the linguistic and cultural needs of language minority students. From the language educator's point of view, it is obvious that a lack of proficiency in the language of instruction has harmful effects on a student's ability to deal with content-area texts, word problems, and lectures. Many language educators (e.g., Spanos, Rhodes, Dale and Crandall, 1988) and a growing number of mathematics and science educators (e.g., Cuevas, 1984, and Mestre, 1981) are providing arguments suggesting that the nature of math and science language imposes a heavy burden on *all* students regardless of the language of instruction. Furthermore, national organizations, such as the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM), the Mathematical Sciences Education Board (MSEB), and the American Association for the Advancement of Science (AAAS) are calling for an approach to education that emphasizes communication for all students, at all school levels.

The recently-published NCTM *Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics* (1989) lists *learning to communicate mathematically* (p. 8) as one of its five major goals. The NCTM authors maintain that all students can benefit from listening, reading, writing, speaking, and demonstration activities (pp. 26-28, 78-80, 140-142). For nonnative speakers of English, the NCTM states: Students whose primary language is not the language of instruction have unique needs. Specially designed activities and teaching strategies (developed with the assistance of language specialists) should be incorporated into the high school mathematics program in order for all students to have the opportunity to develop their mathematics potential regardless of a lack of proficiency in the language of instruction (p.142).

The MSEB (1989) supports this call for more communication, recommending that teachers engage students in the construction of mathematical understanding through the use of group work, open discussions, presentations, and verbalization of mathematical ideas (p. 58). The MSEB advocates the use of non-traditional teaching models, such as paired classes, that have one teacher for language arts and one for mathematics and science (p. 65).

Such statements challenge language and content-area educators to begin working together to educate students for whom basic English skills or academic language skills are an obstacle to success.

Focusing on the Language of Mathematics

Some research on content-based instruction has focused on the language of mathematics. In 1984, researchers from the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) (Crandall, Dale, Rhodes, and Spanos, 1984) initiated a project funded by the Fund for the

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Improvement of Postsecondary Education (FIPSE). This study involved collaborative research with mathematics educators at several two-year colleges with high language minority enrollments, and led to the development of a set of materials that could be used as a language-focused supplement to beginning algebra classes. The research phase of the project involved group problem-solving activities with language minority and majority students. The researchers produced evidence that the performance of both types of students was severely impeded by a lack of proficiency in the language of mathematics. Further, there were few language-based materials or activities in mathematics classrooms, and fewer opportunities for language arts teachers to become involved in educating these students. In sum, there was little articulation between language arts programs and mathematics programs, despite the obvious language deficiencies faced by large numbers of students enrolled in mathematics.

Meeting the Communication Need

Language minority students are often quick to develop the social language skills that enable them to communicate with their peers outside of the classroom. Within an academic context, however, this basic proficiency is inadequate because language minority students are inexperienced with or lack an understanding of the terminology and writing styles particular to a content area. These students may not be prepared to perform the higher order language and cognitive tasks required in rigorous academic content courses. This latter point also applies to native speakers of English who are often not skilled in analysis, argumentation, and evaluation.

Instruction that emphasizes language activities should be incorporated into content area lessons and curricula. This requires development in teacher training, curricula and materials, assessment, and cooperation between content and language educators.

Teacher Training. Training workshops and seminars can provide content teachers with an opportunity to consider language objectives and increased communication in their classes. An important aspect of these training seminars is the joint participation of content and language educators, providing opportunities for cooperative activities that draw on the expertise of both disciplines. Training seminars present teachers with the theoretical background for integrating language and content and provide opportunities for application through analyses of curricula, suggested instructional strategies and techniques, and assessment tools. Techniques include discovery learning, hands-on and problem-solving activities, cooperative learning and group work, and peer tutoring.

Teacher training can also be provided through the use of video. Several videos, currently under production (see Resources), demonstrate the content/language approach and materials, and have accompanying manuals, for use by teachers for self-instruction when direct training is unavailable.

Curricula and Materials. Once teachers have been trained to increase communication in class, they need appropriate materials for developing their lessons and activities. Teachers can attend workshops on material adaptation where they can learn to modify existing materials for their particular needs. In such workshops, strategy sheets (see Cuevas, Dale, Richardson, Tokar, & Willets, 1986) are used as developmental models. These srategy sheets focus on content and language objectives in lesson plans designed with communicative activities. Teachers might consider using prepared supplemental materials (*e.g., English Skills for Algebra*, Crandall, Dale, Rhodes, and Spanos, 1989) that help students become more proficient in the academic language through interactive listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities.

Assessment. Although assessment tools for determining concept mastery of mathematics, science, and social studies are numerous, instruments for measuring content area language proficiency are scarce. Assessment tools, such as the *Pre-Algebra Lexicon* (see References), are currently being developed and field tested. The diagnostic techniques in the Pre-Algebra Lexicon are organized according to four math categories (concepts, operations, word problems, and problem solving) and the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). The techniques allow teachers to assess growth in language skills within the context of daily mathematics instruction.

Cooperation Between Language Educators and Content Educators. Content teachers need to implement strategies for increasing teacher-student and student-student interaction in the classroom and to emphasize communication of the concepts. Language teachers need to address content language in their classes. Collaboration between content and language teachers can be beneficial and essential to both, as language teachers can provide insights into linguistic and cultural problems and offer communicative activities for overcoming these problems, and content teachers can suggest topics for the language courses that reinforce the content the students face. These collaborative efforts can help students develop greater language proficiency and concept mastery.

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Resources

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LIST OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE RESOURCE MATERIALS

1. Who Will Be My Mother?

DBB121	Big Book	$21.00	
D121RT	6 Pack	$19.80	(Age Range: 5-6)

In a Dark, Dark Wood

DBB112	Big Book	$21.00	
D112RT	6 Pack	$17.50	(Age Range: 5-6)

Mrs. Wishy-Washy

DBB105	Big Book	$21.00	
D105RT	6 Pack	$19.80	(Age Range: 5-6)

One Cold, Wet Night

DBB113	Big Book	$21.00	
D113RT	6 Pack	$17.50	(Age Range: 5-6)

The Red Rose

DBB117	Big Book	$21.00	
D117RT	6 Pack	$19.80	(Age Range: 5-6)

Noise

DWP1593	Big Book	$21.00	
DWP7362	6 pack	$18.00	(Age Range: 5-7)

Understanding Mathematics Series:

How Many?

DBB2335	Big Book	$26.00	
D2335	Small Text	$4.00	(Age Range: 5-7)

What's the Time, Mr. Wolf?

DBB2343	Big Book	$26.00	
D2343	Small Text	$4.00	(Age Range: 5-7)

How Big is Big?

DBB2351	Big Book	$26.00	
D2351	Small Text	$4.00	(Age Range: 5-7)

My Wonderful Aunt Series:

Story One:

DWP1056	Big Book	$26.00	
DWP0813	Small Text	$4.40	(Age Range: 8-11)

Story Two:

DWP1064	Big Book	$26.00	
DWP0821	Small Text	$4.40	

Story Three:

DWP1542	Big Book	$26.00	
DWP083X	Small Text	$4.40	

Order from: The Wright Group
10949 Technology Place
San Diego, CA 92127
Telephone: 1-800-523-2371

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2. Practical English Learning Cards
0-8325-0324-X $49.95

Bilingual Fables/Tina the Turtle and Carlos the Rabbit
0-8442-7446-1 $4.95

Bilingual Fables/Chiquita and Pepita-The City Mouse and the Country Mouse
0-8442-7446-1 $4.95

Habia Una Vez (includes Goldilocks and Little Red Hen)
0-8442-7333-3 $6.50 (in Spanish only)

* Cassette tapes of the above readers have been developed for the Virginia Migrant Education program. The English and Spanish versions are included on each cassette. To obtain cassettes contact Mr. George Irby at (804) 225-2911.

University of Chicago Spanish Dictionary
0-8442-7852-1 $6.95

Order from: National Textbook Company
4255 West Touhy Ave.
Lincolnwood, Illinois 60646-1975
Telephone: 1-800-323-4900

3. Jazz Chants - Carolyn Graham (Young Adult/Adult)
502-429X Student Book and Cassette $18.50

Jazz Chants for Children - Carolyn Graham (Elementary)
502496-6 Student Book $8.95

Jazz Chants for Children
502576-8 Teacher's Edition and Cassette $22.00

Order from: Oxford University Press
16-00 Pollitt Drive
Fairlawn, NJ 07410
Telephone: (212) 679-7300

4. U.S. Express (Student magazine; Grades 6-12)
14 Biweekly Issues (Teacher's Guide free with 10 or more student subscriptions)

Boss for a Week

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9J00351	Student Book	$2.21

Caps for Sale

9J64643	Big Book	$16.50
9J65000	6 Pack	$11.25

4. Continued

Chicken Soup with Rice
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More Spaghetti, I Say!
9J64656 Big Book $16.50
9J41199 Student Book $1.88

Noisy Nora
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The Three Billy Goats Gruff
9J64662 Big Book $16.50
9J71768 Student Book $1.88

* Cassettes of most of these books are available through Scholastic, Inc.

Order from: Scholastic, Inc.
P.O. Box 7502
2931 East McCarty Street
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5. Teddy Bear Search (Pre-K - 1)
MB8510 $8.95

Three-Scene Sequence Poster (Pre-K - 3)
MB7546 $11.95

Four-Scene Sequence Cards (Pre-K - 3)
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Learn the Alphabet (K - 2)
MB9502 $6.95

Clock Dial (1 - 3)
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Individual Clock Dials (1 - 3)
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Handbook for Citizenship (Secondary, Adult)
Student text $6.95 (ISBN 0-88084-323-3)

Order from: Alemany Press
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Hayward, CA 94545
Telephone: 1-800-227-2375

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English Picture Dictionary
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Spanish Picture Dictionary
0-8442-7630-8 $8.95

Diccionario Bilingue Ilustrado
Level 1 (K - 2)
0-8325-0052-6 $8.50

Level 2 (2 - 4)
0-8325-0053-4 $9.20

Level 3 (4 - 8)
0-8325-0054-2 $10.50

Order from: Flame Co.
1476 Pleasantville Rd.
Briarcliff Manor, NY 10510
Telephone: (914) 762-3466

8. Content Connection (Grades 7 - 12)
S-369-3 Student Book $15.95
S-370-7 Teacher's Guide $19.95

8. Continued
John Burningham Readers - Four Book Set (in Spanish)
1,2,3
Colores
Contrarios (Opposites)
Animales
ST110 HB 4 Book Set $17.95

Sapo y Sepo Inseparables (Frog and Toad Together)
3047-1PB $7.95

(Pre K - 1)

Sapo y Sepo Son Amigos (Frog and Toad are Friends)
3043-9PB $7.95

El Pequeño Nicolas (Grades 2 - 4)
391-X PB $6.50

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Northvale, NJ 07647
Telephone: 1-800-526-0107

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Bantam Spanish-English Dictionary (paperback)
Excellent portable dictionary $3.15

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137 West 14th Street
New York, NY 10011
Telephone: 1-800-345-5946

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H0230E Group-sized Word Cards $8.00

Dolch Group Word Teaching Game
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Alphabet Photo Posters (29 posters)
G2400E $35.00

Prefix Puzzles
498E $12.00

Suffix Puzzles
499E $12.00

10. Continued

Associations
F4810E Set 1 (50 cards) $9.00
F4820E Set 2 $9.00

Opposites (40 pairs)
F4900E $12.00

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Shopping Lists Games
Games I (make change up to $5.00) 321E $19.50
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Coin Puzzles
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Laminated Teaching Clock
449E $19.95

Clock Puzzles
354E $14.00

Consequences (71 cards depicting thought-provoking problems for class discussion)
161002E $19.00

The Bugs, the Goats and the Little Pink Pigs
G5361E Big Book $18.00
G5261E Student Book $3.25
G5365E Cassette $6.95

The Bugs, the Goats and the Little Pink Pigs (in Spanish)
G6361E Big Book $18.00
G6261E Student Book $3.25

Susie Moriar
G5361E Big Book $18.00
G5251E Student Book $3.25

Susie Moriar (in Spanish)
G5361E Big Book $18.00
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10. Continued

Here are My Hands

G5371E	Big Book	$18.00
G5271E	Student Book	$3.25
G5375E	Cassette	$6.95

Wordsong

G5391E	Big Book	$18.00
G5291E	Student Book	$3.25
G5395E	Cassette	$6.95

Argyle Turkey Goes to Sea

J0312E	Big Book	$21.50
J0322E	Small Book	$3.25

Argyle Turkey Goes to Ganderland

J0313E	Big Book	$21.50
J0323E	Small Book	$3.25

Order from: DLM Teaching Resources
One DLM Park
Allen, Texas 75002-1302
Telephone: 1-800-527-4747

11. Life Science in Action Series: (Reading Level: 2.5 - 4.0)

Green Plants	0-915510-76-6	$2.95
Animals	0-88102-022-2	$2.95
The Five Senses	0-915510-75-8	$2.95
Human Systems	0-915510-75-8	$2.95

Physical Science in Action Series: (Reading Level: 2.5 - 4.0)

Sound	0-915510-78-2	$2.95
Machines	0-88102-090-7	$2.95
Electricity	0-915510-77-4	$2.95
Energy	0-88102-020-6	$2.95

Earth Science in Action Series: (Reading Level: 2.5 - 4.0)

The Solar System	0-915510-80-4	$2.95
Earth Resources	0-88102-025-7	$2.95
Weather	0-915510-79-0	$2.95
Changing Earth	0-88102-024-9	$2.95

12. The Five Senses Series: $3.50 each (Ages: 3 - 5)

El Gusto	3608-5	Taste	3566-6
El Olfato	3607-7	Smell	3565-8
El Oido	3606-9	Hearing	3563-1
El Tacto	3609-3	Touch	3567-4
La Vista	3605-0	Sight	3565-X

12. Continued

The Family Series: $3.50 each (Ages 3 - 5)

Los Niños	3608-5	Children	3850-9
Los Jovenes	3855-X	Teenagers	3851-7
Los Padres	3856-8	Parents	3852-5
Los Abuelos	385706	Grandparents	3853-3

Order from: Barron's Educational Series, Inc.
250 Wireless Blvd.
Hauppauge, NY 11788
Telephone: 1-800-645-3476

ESL RESOURCE MATERIALS FOR TEACHERS

1. ESL Teacher's Activities Kit - Elizabeth Claire
P13-283979-2 $24.95

Order from: Prentice-Hall
c/o Order Department
200 Old Tappan Road
Old Tappan, NJ 07675
Telephone: 1-800-223-1360

2. Making it Happen - Patricia Richard-Amato
75692 $24.95

Order from: Addison-Wesley/Longman
Order Department
Route 128
Reading, MA 01867
Telephone: 1-800-447-2226

3. Guide to Culture in the Classroom - Muriel Saville-Troika
P06 $4.00

Order from: The National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education
11501 Georgia Ave., Suite 102
Wheaton, MD 20902
Telephone: 1-800-647-0123

4. Techniques in Teaching Writing - Ann Raimes
434131-3 $7.50

Order from: Oxford University Press
ELT Order Department
200 Madison Ave.
New York, NY 10016
Telephone: (212) 679-7300

5. Assessment of Language Minority Students - Else V. Hamayan, Judith A. Kwiat and Ron Perlman

Order from: Illinois Resource Center
1855 Mt. Prospect Rd.
Des Plaines, IL 60018
Telephone: (312) 803-3112

6. The Whole Language Evaluation Book - Kenneth S. Goodman, Yetta M. Goodman and Wendy J. Hood
0-435-08484-4 $16.50

Order from: Heinemann
70 Court Street
Portsmouth, NH 03801
Telephone: (603) 431-7894

7. Cooperative Learning Resources for Teachers - Spencer Kagan, 1989 edition

Order from: Spencer Kaga, Ph.D.
Resources for Teachers
27402 Camino Capistrano
Suite 201
Laguna Niguel, CA 92677
Telephone: (714) 582-3137

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ERIC Digest

ESL Teacher Education

Prepared by Carol Kreidler

November 1987

The Growing Profession

Although the teaching of English to speakers of other languages (ESOL) is a relatively young profession, it is, in reality, quite an old activity. When the Angles and Saxons invaded Britain some 1500 years ago, the two tribes found it easier to teach their own language (which has evolved into present–day English) to the conquered Britons than to learn the Britons' tongue.

Until the time of World War II the teaching of English was rather hit or miss in the United States. Most immigrants found the lack of ability to speak English an occupational as well as a social and psychological handicap. Instruction in English for adult immigrants was provided in Americanization schools for those who wished to enroll, while public school children were required to do their studies in English with no extra help. There was no concentrated effort to aid non-English speakers.

In 1940, the first teachers of English as a foreign language were enrolled at the University of Michigan in a training program that was based on structural or descriptive linguistics. At about the same time in the Army Language School, the analysis of a variety of languages and their contrasts with the English language added to the expansion of the evolving field of linguistics. These developments in the study of languages, including the English language, gave impetus to the inauguration of programs in linguistics at colleges and universities. General linguistics programs often included classes or areas of concentration in applied linguistics which, at that time, were mainly programs of preparation for teaching English to speakers of other languages.

The Growing Number of Teacher Preparation Programs

In 1964 the National Defense Education Act authorized summer institutes to provide training for teachers of English as a second language (ESL), and the number of university programs in ESL grew. Forty-six programs in 36 institutions were described in a 1972 directory of TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) preparation programs; the 1986 edition of the directory lists 196 programs offered at 143 institutions.

The Growth of Certification

A milestone in professionalization occurred in 1966 with the founding of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), a professional organization for those concerned with the teaching of English as a second or foreign language. TESOL started with 337 members; today the organization numbers more than 11,000.

TESOL, in an attempt to address concerns of educators, held a conference (1970) to develop guidelines for certification and preparation of ESL teachers in the United States. These guidelines, which are in three parts, define the role of an ESL teacher in an American school, describe the personal qualities and professional competencies the teacher should possess, and describe the features of a professional preparation program designed to fulfill those competencies. They have been used extensively by the states in setting their requirements for certification.

From 1976 to 1980 the number of states offering some kind of certification in ESL increased almost five-fold, from 4 to 19. At present, 33 states and the District of Columbia have certification or endorsement and two states have pending certification legislation.

Special Preparation for ESL

It has been claimed that an English-speaking child has the ability to use most of the sounds and grammatical forms in a communicative context by the beginning of school. The content of training programs must, therefore, be different for those who will teach anyone who does not already know these forms. The teacher of ESL must know more than simply how to speak the language. Studies in English linguistics, anthropology, psy-

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chology, and sociology, as well as in education, form the special areas of preparation for the ESL teacher.

Special Programs for ESL

Traditionally, the study of linguistics has been a graduate endeavor; likewise, programs for preparing teachers of ESL have usually been offered at the graduate level. Out of the 46 teacher preparation programs listed in the 1972 directory mentioned earlier, only five were at the bachelor's degree level, while 33 were at the master's level. The 1986 version of the directory lists 25 programs at the bachelor's level and 120 at the master's level. Professional preparation programs at one or both of these levels are in place for most states at state universities and/or private institutions.

The fact that most of the programs are graduate programs also accounts for the number of states that have endorsements for ESL rather than full certification since teachers often get their additional training in ESL adding endorsements to previous basic certification. Many school systems provide inservice training in ESL; moreover, the TESOL organization, through its affiliates and their conferences which offer Continuing Education Units, has taken the responsibility for a great deal of inservice ESL teacher education.

Some Future Directions

Since the 1970s, a change in teaching methodology that has pervaded the teaching of ESL is the change from a teacher–centered classroom to a student– or learner-centered classroom. In the learner–centered classroom the teacher becomes a facilitator of learning, and it is important that students in teacher preparation courses are taught in a manner that reflects this approach to learning.

Teacher preparation programs are presently being challenged to produce teachers who understand the theory behind the methodologies. Freeman (1987) points out that the teacher trainer's first task is to find out how people learn to teach, to understand the processes through which individuals learn to be language teachers. Only then can we concentrate our efforts on improving the quality of language teacher education.

But teachers of ESL are, above all, teachers. New directions in ESL preparation parallel new directions in the preparation of all teachers. In education today there is discussion regarding the amount of time prospective teachers spend learning how to teach rather than learning the content of what they will teach. Prospective teachers of ESL are in this way like those of other fields. For years the emphasis has been on the learner in the classroom; now we are beginning to see more emphasis on the teacher. After all, the teacher is a crucial determiner of success in the classroom.

Resources

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) is a membership organization that publishes a bimonthly newsletter, a quarterly journal, and other publications. In addition to the previously mentioned Guidelines for Certification, the TESOL organization has also published standards for professional preparation programs. The address for TESOL is Suite 205, 1118 22nd St. NW, Washington, DC 20037.

For Further Reading

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AM I AN EFFECTIVE ESL TEACHER?

by Connie Williams and Stephen Cary

		Always	Most of the time	Never
1)	I let my students pass through a "silent period" where the emphasis is on listening, not speaking.	2	1	0
2)	Instead of forcing production, I let speech emerge spontaneously.	2	1	0
3)	I keep the learning environment as stress free as possible.	2	1	0
4)	My students are generally enthusiastic and look forward to our ESL lessons.	2	1	0
5)	I readily accept student errors and don't spend time on correction drills.	2	1	0
6)	I build my activities around student needs and interests.	2	1	0
7)	I allow language skills to be developed in a natural sequence-listening, speaking, reading, writing.	2	1	0
8)	I maintain student interest by varying my instructional activities/media.	2	1	0
9)	I wait for students to develop solid oral skills before moving on to reading and writing activities.	2	1	0
10)	Whenever possible, I use real objects, visuals, and manipulatives to teach language.	2	1	0
11)	For each ESL lesson, I have a clear objective in mind.	2	1	0
12)	I keep a written record of the language progress made by each student.	2	1	0

13)	I teach vocabulary and grammar structures in a meaningful context rather than as isolated words or phrases.	2	1	0
14)	I emphasize cooperative learning activities and favor heterogeneous grouping over ability grouping.	2	1	0
15)	I integrate several other curriculum areas into my ESL lessons.	2	1	0
16)	I emphasize using language over producing language.	2	1	0

KEY

Total	Effectiveness Profile
32	You are the world's most effective ESL teacher (and a teller of tall tales).
26-31	You are a conscientious and highly effective ESL teacher (and not paid what you are worth).
16-25	You are usually effective but have room to improve.
9-15	You are often ineffective (but there is hope).
0-8	You are destined to soon switch professions.